

# Public Personnel Review

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- A Flexible "Rule of Three" for Public Personnel Selection
- The Michigan Municipal Personnel Service
- Federal Management Intern Career Patterns
- Correlates of the Supervisory Judgment Test
- School Recruitment: An Answer to the Clerical Shortage
- Civil Service in India
- Personnel Opinions
- The Bookshelf
- Personnel Literature

**Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly**

# PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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## THE NEW CIVIL SERVANT

N. R. Pillai

From the Convocation Address delivered at the University of Travancore on December 18, 1953. Reprinted from *The Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 1, No. 1, January-March, 1955, with the permission of the Editor S. B. Bapat.

What manner of man is the new civil servant to be? He should, it is clear, possess the traditional service virtues—efficiency, integrity, and loyalty, more especially to policies and institutions. But of one supposed virtue, that of neutralism in matters with a social or suspected political content, he must rid himself. It has for long remained an unchallenged maxim that the perfect civil servant must be completely neutral from a political point of view and prove himself the loyal and obedient instrument of whatever party is in power. If this means that the model civil servant should create a political vacuum in his thinking, it is a doctrine which must be discarded.

Every citizen, whatever his calling, has the right to develop and hold his own political views. With this right there can be no interference. But it is the duty of all public servants, as it is of students, not to become political partisans or to engage in political activities. Fortunately for us, the ideal of a welfare

state is not in our country a controversial political issue; it is the goal laid down in the Constitution itself. Far from being a neutralist, the public servant of today, and still more of tomorrow, should be one rich in human sympathy and with a fully awakened social conscience. To his work he must bring not only competence but faith and fervour and a mind, receptive as well as constructive, able to see, beyond the immediate difficulties, the opportunities that lie ahead.

This does not mean that the public servant should degenerate into a "yes-man." But it does mean that he should on no account be a "no-man," the man who can only see snags and pitfalls and whose instinctive reaction to external stimulus is one of obstruction. The "yes-man" tries to please others, the "no-man" pleases himself; the "yes-man" does not reveal his mind, the "no-man" has no mind to reveal. Both species are a danger to any organization, but the no-type is a greater danger at a time of growth and development.

(For an account of recent developments in the civil service of India, see the article by Winston W. Crouch on page 84.)



# A Flexible "Rule of Three" for Public Personnel Selection

Dorothy C. Adkins

**M**ANY civil service laws provide for the certification of three available eligible applicants for a vacancy and for one (or more) additional eligibles for each additional vacancy. Typically, the basic legislation further stipulates that the persons certified shall be the highest ranking eligibles willing to accept employment under the conditions specified.

## Some Problems Posed by the Rule of Three

The origins of this ubiquitous rule of three are almost certainly traceable to the initial negative purpose of minimizing political patronage in government employment. Another question that arises when some restriction is placed upon the number of eligibles to be certified for a position is how the limited number of names is to be chosen. Most civil service legislation specifies that this election shall be in accordance with order on the register. This provision at the least has the merit of objectivity, as would choice of names by alphabetical order or by lot. The assumption is usually made, however, that the order of eligibles has some positive validity for predicting job performance measures—and indeed it is hoped that this is the case. Now if the selection devices had perfect validity for predicting operating agency evaluations of job performance of the selected appointees, a rule of *one* should be applied. In actual

practice, such validity for civil service selection devices is simply not attainable. No personnel examining devices yet developed are known to have perfect validity; and far too frequently public personnel agencies lack facilities for ascertaining the predictive power of their procedures. It is safe to say, however, that ordinarily the validity, especially for discriminating among a limited group who pass all tests and other requirements, is appreciably below perfect. Thus, we do not achieve a one-to-one relationship between rank orders on the register and on future job performance criteria. Often as much as perhaps 75 to 90 percent of the variance in job performance evaluations is attributable to factors other than those determining rank order on the register.

The personnel agency responsible for applying the rule of three often is faced with dissatisfaction among operating agency officials, who are convinced that it interferes with proper administrative latitude, especially for higher-level positions. The examining agency tends to forget or to minimize the initial reason for the rule of three, which is perhaps only infrequently relevant today. It finds that operating agencies are not placated by mere objectivity as a reason for narrowly restricting their choice of personnel or that they represent the implication of motivation by personal bias rather than through a genuine desire to select the most suitable personnel. This leaves as the only resort of the personnel agency the hoped-for validity of the rank orders of the eligibles.

Since at best the examination procedures are designed to tap only those factors common to the positions in a *class*, even the most advanced techniques for determining rank order on a register can scarcely be expected also to take into account the different, *unique* factors affecting success in each specific position within the class. Indeed, the examining agency would only

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This article was written while Dr. Adkins was employed as Test Construction and Analysis Consultant by the Office of Personnel, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. The opinions expressed are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the point of view of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** In the Personnel Opinions Section on page 92, representatives of three state personnel departments tell about their experience with a certification procedure other than the "rule of three."

rarely be able to investigate what these unique factors are. Granted that their judgments will not be flawless, only those persons with intimate, first-hand knowledge of a particular position can have a sound basis for identifying these peculiar components of job success. Hence the selection procedures should permit their judgments, fallible though they may be, to increase the validity of the over-all examination process. Some observers of merit system procedures, and perhaps the majority of operating agency officials, feel that rigid application of the rule of three does not allow sufficient administrative discretion to permit the selection of the best qualified person for each position.

Inflexible interpretation of the rule of three becomes even more questionable when it is coupled with a competitive promotional system and when an agency has a highly satisfactory career employee whom it desires to promote to a particular vacancy. There seems to be no feasible way for rank order on a competitive promotional examination to take into account the recommendations of different present supervisors of applicants working in various situations. On the other hand, wholly to ignore the judgments of supervisors and others who have worked intimately with an employee seems short-sighted. In general, this consideration would call for more widespread use of noncompetitive promotions. The matter is introduced here simply because if a competitive promotional system is widely used, departure from rigid interpretation of the rule of three becomes even more imperative.

The argument for modifying the rule of three or for applying it flexibly becomes more cogent the more diverse the positions that are treated together for examination purposes. This is understandable because, in the extreme case, if it were feasible for the central personnel office and the examining division to collaborate on the establishment of a rank order of eligibles for each individual position, the order then could reflect more adequately the peculiar position components as well as those applicable to a variety of other positions. Greater administrative latitude in personnel selection also becomes more pressing

as the importance of personality and temperament factors for job success increases; as the requirements of training and experience for particular positions become more specialized; and, in general, as the level of position increases.

Thus, while the discriminations among eligibles on a register for a class of positions are far from perfectly valid for predicting job success on each position within the class, it is likely that the validity of the total selection process will be increased by allowing operating agency evaluations of unique position qualifications to have greater weight than under the limitations of the rule of three.

Even though there may be some departure from basic merit system principles if somewhat greater freedom to the operating agency officials in the area of personnel selection is permitted, such abuse is not likely to be great. After all, it is to their advantage to make the best possible personnel selections. Moreover, a central personnel agency should not delude itself into believing that it can ever enforce a strict application of the rule of three. One technique that operating agencies sometimes use is to describe a position in such terms that one or more of the three persons certified will regard it as undesirable and hence not be "available." Thus, one or more additional names are added to the certificate. Another common solution is for an operating agency simply to delay filling a vacancy until an applicant who seems suitable for it comes within reach. Still another possibility is that of requesting selective certification upon the basis of some artificial special qualifications. And, of course, merit system legislation itself often permits the agency to reject all eligibles on the first certificate of three.

Some civil service agencies, convinced that more administrative discretion than is permitted under a strict interpretation of the rule of three would improve personnel selection and aware that operating agencies will somehow achieve greater freedom despite efforts toward rigid application of the rule, frankly adhere to it only loosely. Thus, if several certificates are to be issued in a relatively short interval of time, the personnel agency may include on that for

a particular agency the name of one of its provisional employees who would come within reach within the anticipated period of use of the register. Or, if the personnel agency knows that an applicant wants to work in a particular agency or that an agency wants a particular applicant, the personnel agency will include that applicant on a certificate to that agency. It is argued that moving a provisional employee whom one agency wants to another agency and replacing him by a second eligible who could have been certified to the second agency would be foolish. Likewise, it would be injudicious to send eligible A to agency B and eligible B to agency A when eligible A wants to work in agency A and eligible B in agency B.

#### Some Suggestions for Modifying Certification Practices

While an attitude of flexibility seems to work pretty well, it also requires the exercise of sound judgment in the issuance of certificates. The process of certification in the central personnel agency is no longer largely routine. Perhaps some orderly way can be found for providing an effective degree of administrative discretion to the operating agencies without at the same time requiring the exercise of considerable judgment in the mechanics of certification.

Although some modification in current practices governing the application of the rule of three seems desirable, the operating agencies need not have access to a complete register in selecting a single employee. There are two reasons why this might be undesirable. The first is the practical one that for some classes of positions several agencies need to make personnel selections at the same time, and having many agencies negotiating with the same prospects simultaneously might be inefficient. The other reason is that presumably the discriminating power of the rank orders on the total register is greater than chance, even though usually far from perfect. To be retained through the step of job selection, this positive validity for assessing individual differences in factors common to the positions within a class should somehow enter into the certification process.

The point is that individual differences within a small score range along a continuum based upon job requirements common to the positions in a class are not significant as compared with differences in other traits, pertinent to specific positions, that have had no weight in determining rank order on the register. Minute differences between the scores that customarily are used to establish rank order of qualified applicants thus represent an overrefinement.

This suggests a possible modification of current practices that would permit greater latitude to the operating agency officials without requiring amendment of civil service legislation. If small score differences do not represent valid distinctions—and there is ample reason for the conviction that they do not—then the scores can be rounded or grouped together into a smaller number of subdivisions. For example, they could be grouped with a class interval of three, scores from 69.50 to 72.49 being designated by the face value of the interval, 71; those from 72.50 to 75.49 being designated by 74; those from 75.50 to 78.49 by 77; and so on. It is thus as if we recognize that our unit of measurement is too small and correct for this by combining similar scores. The resulting register would contain only the scores of, say, 71, 74, 77, 80, 83, 86, 92, 95, and 98 (the top score depending upon how veteran's preference points are treated).

Now what happens when an agency needs a certificate from such a register, grouped into 10 divisions by intervals of three? Usually there will be a number of tied scores, which may be argued to better represent the actual validity of the discriminations than do the original untied scores. Since a number of scores are identical, why not allow the operating agency freedom to select, from among the several persons with tied scores, the particular three names to be certified for a vacancy in a higher-level position? If a number of agencies needed certificates at the same time, they could make their initial selections of three by sending one or two representatives to the central personnel office. Then they could apply more intensive individualized procedures for choosing from

among the three in their own offices in a more leisurely fashion.

Some such considerations as the following could govern the application of this modification of the rule of three:

1. The suggested procedure could be limited to positions at or above a specified salary level, since increased operating agency latitude in personnel selection is more needed for higher-level positions.

2. The divisions of the original register scores into subdivisions could be based on class intervals of differing sizes, depending upon the total number of eligibles on each particular register and the anticipated number of vacancies. The larger the number of eligibles and also the larger the number of expected vacancies, the smaller should be the size of the interval and the larger the number of subdivisions.

3. Some thought would have to be given to how points for veterans' preference would be handled. If the original scores were rounded,

then preference points were added, and the resulting scores rounded again, the veteran in some instances would have relatively more advantage than if preference points were added to the original score and then the total score rounded. Probably the latter alternative is preferable.

4. Practice under the proposed modification should be observed carefully to find what procedural changes would improve it and to verify that it is not leading to capricious abuses of basic merit system principles.

The foregoing procedural suggestion for achieving greater flexibility in agency selection of personnel than is provided under a strict interpretation of the rule of three is only one of several possibilities for attaining this end. If it should lead to unforeseen difficulties, alternative modifications of current practices could be devised readily.

# The Michigan Municipal Personnel Service

James M. Mitchell, William F. Danielson,  
and Lida S. Stark

IN THE mid-1930's, there occurred the greatest expansion in state and local civil service systems in the United States since the 1880's. There has been much speculation as to the reason for this surge of interest in the merit system. No single cause was entirely responsible, but possibly the most important reason was the attention the people gave to the affairs of government because of the depression of the early thirties.

This interest in better management of public affairs was not restricted to the larger units of government; it carried into small cities, as well. Many municipalities amended their charters or passed ordinances creating personnel systems that would take local jobs out of politics. Some local reforms were sponsored by citizen groups, some by city officials, and some by unions of city employees.

It soon became apparent, however, that the establishment of the legal basis for a merit system was only the first step in improving municipal personnel management. Some of the small cities turned to their state personnel agencies, or to the nearby big city or county that had a civil service system for help in getting their personnel programs started. In some cases they received little or no assistance, but in

others the large personnel agency responded well, and several jurisdictions provided formal arrangements for aid on a continuing basis.

## Cities Ask League for Help

Many cities, including those in Michigan, turned to their Municipal League. This seemed logical since they were already receiving assistance from the League in solving problems of police and fire protection, street construction and repair, financial administration, and all other aspects of city government. Why not personnel management, too? Moreover, the cities were members of the League, paid dues, and voted for the Board of Directors that determined League policy and selected the staff. It was their organization.

In Michigan, as these requests for help began to mount, the director of the League, in turn, requested assistance from the organizations now located at "1313" in Chicago.<sup>1</sup> He recognized that personnel administration was a specialty requiring training and experience just as much as other aspects of municipal administration. After much discussion, an arrangement was worked out under which the Spelman Fund of New York agreed to help provide services to the small Michigan cities in getting sound personnel programs started. The technical services were to be supplied by Public Administration Service, which was to develop classification and pay plans,

<sup>1</sup> The so-called "1313" Building, located on the campus of the University of Chicago, was erected in the late thirties by a gift from the Spelman Fund on land donated by the University. It is the headquarters for more than 20 independent national associations of public officials. These organizations share the belief that government in the United States can be made more satisfactory if administrative organization, techniques, and methods are improved; and that the responsibility for such improvement rests primarily upon public officials. Typical 1313 organizations are: Civil Service Assembly, Council of State Governments, American Society of Planning Officials, International City Managers' Association, Federation of Tax Administrators, and Public Administration Service.

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Mr. Mitchell was the first Manager of the Municipal Personnel Service and Mr. Danielson is a former Manager. For information on some other methods of providing personnel services to local government, see Kenneth Byers and Others, "Personnel Services for Local Government: The California Program," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1955; Henry J. McFarland, "Personnel Services for Local Government: The New York Program," *ibid.*, July, 1955; Ralph P. Shaw, Jr., "Personnel Services for Local Government: The New Jersey Program," *ibid.*, October, 1955.



and by the Civil Service Assembly, which was to provide advice in the other aspects of personnel administration, especially the drafting of local charter amendments and ordinances.

In 1936, Dearborn, Flint, Kalamazoo, and Saginaw were chosen to receive demonstration installations of classification and pay plans, at no cost to them. They made no commitment for a continuing personnel service from the League, although this was suggested as a possibility in conversations between their city officials and the Michigan Municipal League staff. It soon became apparent that some kind of continuing arrangement for service to these and other cities would be necessary if they were to have sound personnel programs. Therefore, in 1938, a Municipal Personnel Service was established as a permanent part of the activities of the Michigan Municipal League.

The basic purpose of the service is to provide sound advice in the administrative and technical aspects of personnel work to Michigan cities and villages at a reasonable cost. Several cities immediately contracted for the comprehensive program of personnel service offered by the League. The annual fee was determined by the number of employees covered under the civil service system. Other cities requested, and paid for, specific examinations, assistance in drafting legislation, or the development of classification and pay plans. The activities of the Municipal Personnel Service have expanded steadily in the twenty years since the demonstration program was begun.

#### Nature and Scope of Present Services

In the first decade of operation most of the work done was in the area of original installation of classification and pay plans. In the second decade the emphasis changed to servicing jurisdictions where plans had been installed.

**Examinations.**—Examinations make up the largest activity of the Municipal Personnel Service. Examinations prepared cover every possible field in local government—police, fire, public safety, clerical, administrative, engineering, recreation, public works, and other areas. Except for a few positions,

such as patrolman and fireman, where alternate standard examinations have been developed, the "tailor-made" approach is used in the preparation of examinations.

The demand for the examination service has increased steadily. In the late 1930's, about thirty examinations a year were given; ten cities were served. In 1955, there were more than three hundred requests for examinations from fifty different jurisdictions.

Examination service includes scoring the examination, establishment of a passing point or critical score if desired, and the certification of eligible lists. In a number of jurisdictions arrangements have been made to conduct some examinations on a continuous basis.

Occasionally, the Personnel Service is asked to conduct complete examinations for executive positions, including recruitment, often on a nation-wide basis. Examples of such positions have been Director of Public Safety, County Controller, Chief of Police, Recreation Director, and City Engineer.

In addition to the written test, many jurisdictions request the Personnel Service staff to provide supplemental oral or performance tests as part of an examination.

The rules and regulations of each jurisdiction are carefully followed. Staff members are available to assist with any problem which may arise in the examination process.

**Classification Plans.**—Installation of original classification and pay plans still comprises an important part of MPS activities. Almost all Michigan cities over 10,000 population have had classification plans installed. Ninety percent of such installations have been made by the Personnel Service. Therefore, most requests for classification installations now come from the cities and villages under 10,000 population and from nonmunicipal jurisdictions such as counties, school districts, and townships.

**Other Technical Work.**—Advice and assistance are available for any kind of personnel activity encountered in the municipal field. Staff members assist in writing charter provisions, ordinances, and rules for personnel systems. Classification plans are maintained. Pay schedules are recom-

mended. Surveys are conducted of industrial and municipal wage levels.

One of the biggest problems facing any city which adopts a new personnel system is trying to maintain and administer it. It is here that the Michigan Municipal Personnel Service has been able to be of especial help. Maintenance services are available, if desired, to any city after the installation of a personnel system. The Village of Wayne is a typical example. In 1949, the Personnel Service assisted in the writing of a civil service charter amendment, personnel ordinance, and personnel rules. Next, a classification plan and pay schedule proposed by MPS was adopted. Since then, the Personnel Service has maintained the classification plan; made annual wage and salary surveys and recommendations for pay adjustments; and prepared, monitored, and administered all personnel examinations. Wayne has a population of 15,330 and there are 95 village employees. The cost to Wayne for this service is less than one-half of the salary for a typist.

Both through the contractual service work performed and through contacts as part of the Michigan Municipal League staff, the Municipal Personnel Service is able to tailor service to the needs of a community.

**Research.**—Despite the heavy operational schedule typical of any personnel agency, the Personnel Service has been conducting an increasingly large program of personnel research. This program has been concentrated primarily in the examination field. Work includes item analysis and studies of examinations given. Validation studies are underway in a few cities in an attempt to validate police and fire selection methods.

Work is continually being done in the development of new examination material. Subject matter experts from the universities and cities are being used to develop and review new examination material. As an example, in cooperation with the staff of the Police Administration School of Michigan State University, a long-range project is planned to inquire into the different elements of police work and how they may be tested for the purpose of initial selection and for promotion.

Experimental work has been done in other areas of municipal personnel administration, such as the "tailor-made" or "plain talk" approach to classification plans, flexible basic salary schedules, "forced choice" and "incident" methods of service ratings, psychiatric examinations for police recruits, group oral tests, and a form of "incentive" pay system.

**Information Service.**—In addition to the specific personnel consulting activities described above, the Personnel Service performs many studies of general interest to Michigan cities. Foremost among these is the annual salary survey. The survey was started in 1942, when municipal salaries began to increase and frequent requests were received about pay rates in other cities. The original survey covered 20 positions in twenty-five cities. Beginning in 1956, 110 cities and villages of over 4,000 population will report wages and salaries paid to over one hundred positions, ranging from laborer to city manager. The survey is published in the early spring of each year in time for comparative use in budget preparations. Supplements are published during the year to show any reported changes. A separate study was made of the practices and costs of "fringe benefits" for the same group of 110 municipalities.

Other studies and publications have included such subjects as municipal labor relations, turnover, pay, classification, service ratings, and training courses available for municipal employees.

Individual questions from city officials on such subjects as social security, retirement systems, personnel practices in other cities, longevity pay, training, and many other personnel matters are answered by the Personnel Service staff.

**Agencies Served.**—From the original four trial installations, the Personnel Service has grown to serve at present fourteen cities on a contract basis. The Personnel Service offers two types of contract: (1) the full operating contract, which includes maintenance of the classification plan and making recommendations for revision of the pay schedule, preparation and administration of all examinations, writing personnel rules, and advising on other aspects of personnel administration; and (2) the

examination contract, which includes the furnishing of all examination services necessary.

About half of the cities served have a full contract; the other half contract for examinations only. Contract cities range in size from 10,000 to 100,000 population. Numbers of employees covered range from 25 to 1500 employees.

An additional thirty to forty cities and villages, most of which have less than 25,000 population, and therefore have only occasional need for examination services, find it more economical to purchase examination services or other personnel services, such as a pay survey, on a fee basis.

While the first obligation of the Personnel Service is to give services to member cities and villages of the Michigan Municipal League, personnel services are also given to other jurisdictions. The Personnel Service has installed classification and pay plans in six Michigan counties, none of which can, under present statutory law, have a formal merit or civil service personnel system. Systems have been installed for non-academic personnel in a number of school districts. Civil service systems in a number of the more populated townships have also been served through classification plans and examination services.

On rare occasions, MPS has installed classification plans or given other technical personnel services to jurisdictions outside of Michigan. Many requests for service come from individual officials who have worked for Michigan cities and then taken positions in nearby states where no similar service is available. Most such requests, however, must be declined because of priority given to requests from Michigan Municipal League members.

In regard to the general personnel activities, such as publishing Michigan Municipal League personnel studies and answering specific questions, the Personnel Service has served almost all of the 435 incorporated cities and villages in Michigan.

**Financing.**—The Municipal Personnel Service is self-supporting. Although the budget is part of the general League budget, fees are charged to the individual cities that use the service. These charges

are sufficient to cover annual operating costs. Approximately two thirds of the revenue comes from annual contract service agreements with municipalities. The remainder comes from charges made for a particular service. Contract charges are based on the number of full-time persons employed by the municipality. Noncontract work is based on a fixed fee schedule developed from past experience.

#### General Comments and Summary

The operation of the Personnel Service has also proved of value to the Michigan Municipal League. The three professional staff members of the Personnel Service are available to assist with the general activities of the League. Services to League members, such as answering general questions on personnel problems, are provided without additional cost to the member municipalities.

It is doubtful if the Personnel Service would be nearly as effective if it did not operate as part of the Municipal League. As they are part of the League staff, Personnel Service staff members are continuously briefed on developments in municipal operations state-wide. They are kept up to date on legislation affecting municipalities, and have an opportunity to participate in many phases of municipal government other than personnel. Because of the continued contact with municipalities through the contract service work and general league activities, staff members are familiar with the conditions and problems of each municipality.

Another real advantage of being a part of the Michigan Municipal League is the flexibility of operation. The Personnel Service has been able to experiment in personnel research and new methods and techniques which might not have been possible if affiliated with a state personnel agency or other organization.

Overhead expenses are minimized by operating from League headquarters. As the League is a nonprofit organization with the status of an instrumentality of government, cities using the Personnel Service know they will receive responsible service at cost.



# Federal Management Intern Career Patterns

E. Grant Youmans

FOR THE PAST DECADE the United States Civil Service Commission has sponsored a series of management training programs for civilian employees of the federal government. Candidates for training are nominated by federal agencies throughout the United States and the U. S. territories. From the employees nominated, the U. S. Civil Service Commission selects those who show potentiality for becoming effective managers. Selection is made on the basis of tests of general mental ability and group interviews. The management interns receive five months of training, which includes rotating work assignments designed to meet the needs of the trainee and the agency which employs him, conferences with government officers, periodic work reports, guided readings, group meetings, and academic work at local universities.

This article reports answers to some rather practical questions: What has happened to the men and women who have participated in the management training programs sponsored by the U. S. Civil Service

Commission? What kinds of careers have they followed? How high have they risen in the hierarchy of the federal government? How many have left the government? What are their career expectations and goals? What satisfactions and dissatisfactions have they found in their careers? What factors are associated with their career mobility in the federal service? Answers to these questions were obtained by means of a mailed questionnaire, to which 80 percent of the interns responded—312 men and 68 women.

The interns in this study are a highly educated group of men and women. Ninety-eight percent have had some college training, two-thirds hold a college degree, and fifteen percent have the master's degree or more. The median age of the men is 36 years, the range is 22 to 52; the median age of the women is 37, the range is 27-52. The average (mean) years of federal service for the men is 11.3 years, and for the women 11.8 years. One-quarter of the interns grew up in rural areas. One-half came from white-collar families, one-third from manual worker families, and one-tenth from farm families. Almost all the men and two-fifths of the women are married. Four-fifths of the men served in the armed forces, for an average of three and one-half years. Only two of the women served in the armed forces.

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TABLE I  
Average (Mean) Present Grade and Average Number of Grades Upward Mobility,  
by Number of Years in the Federal Service

Years in Service	Male			Female		
	No. Cases	Average Present Grade	Average Upward Mobility	No. Cases	Average Present Grade	Average Upward Mobility
Total	287	10.9	7.1	55	9.5	6.7
1-3	14	8.2	2.3	2	8.0	1.5
4-6	51	9.4	4.1	6	7.0	4.3
7-9	43	10.7	6.1	7	8.6	3.3
10-12	46	11.4	7.8	12	10.0	7.0
13-15	77	11.7	8.5	19	10.5	8.5
16-18	34	11.9	8.9	7	9.3	7.3
19-27	22	12.0	9.6	2	11.0	8.5

### Career Mobility in the Federal Service

The career mobility of the interns in the federal service is of two kinds: (1) mobility upward and downward in the federal hierarchy and (2) functional mobility, that is, mobility between types of program activities such as program administration, program specialist, management staff, and clerical activities, each representing particular kinds of government functions.

**Vertical Mobility.**—As is shown in Table I, both men and women interns in the federal government have moved steadily and continually from the lower status and lower paid positions to the higher status and higher paid positions in the federal hierarchy.<sup>1</sup> The men started their federal careers at a slightly higher grade than did the women, they moved up in the hierarchy at a slightly faster rate than did the women, and a greater proportion of the men than of the women achieved the higher grades.

On the average, the men interns entered the government service at grade 3.8, moved upward in the federal hierarchy 7.1 grades in 11.3 years of service, and at the time of the study were functioning at grade 10.9. Almost one-half of the men have achieved grade 12 or higher, and one-fifth were at grade 13 or higher. The highest grade reported for the men was GS-15.

The average entrance grade for the women interns in the government service was 2.8, they moved upward in the hierarchy 6.7 grades in 11.8 years of service, and at the time of the study were functioning at grade 9.5. Only one-sixth of the

women interns have achieved grade 12 or higher, two women were at grade 13, and the highest grade reported was GS-14.

Both men and women interns who entered the government service recently have started at slightly higher grades than did those who entered in the past. The rate of advancement in the hierarchy was highest in the early years of employment and decreased as the interns moved into the higher grades. For example, the men interns in the government service one to three years advanced upward for an average of one grade per year, while those in the government service 16 to 18 years advanced for an average of one-half grade per year.

Despite the prevailing upward mobility in the federal service, a number of interns experienced temporary downward mobility in grade. A substantially greater proportion of the women than of the men in the study were "down-graded" during their employment with the federal government. Whereas only nine percent of the males were downgraded at one time or another, the figure for the women is 28 percent.

**Functional Mobility.**—Significant changes were found between the functions performed by the interns at the time they enrolled in the management intern programs and the functions performed by the same interns five to ten years later. Both men and women tended to move from the program specialist and clerical activities into program administration and management staff functions.<sup>2</sup> A greater proportion of the men than of the women moved into pro-

<sup>1</sup> Annual salary by grade at the time of the study. (Since this study, federal salaries have been increased by approximately 7.5 percent.)

Grade	Salary Range
GS-5	\$ 3410- 4160
GS-6	3795- 4545
GS-7	4205- 4955
GS-8	4620- 5370
GS-9	5060- 5810
GS-10	5500- 6250
GS-11	5940- 6940
GS-12	7040- 8040
GS-13	8360- 9360
GS-14	9600-10600
GS-15	10800-11800
GS-16	12000-12800
GS-17	13000-13800
GS-18	14800

<sup>2</sup> Program administration includes those interns who indicated they were section or division chiefs or in some capacity responsible for an operating program activity. Program specialists are those performing in some program operation other than in an administrative or supervisory capacity. This includes such occupations as soil conservationist, engineer, librarian, meteorologist, investigator, or economist. Management staff includes the categories of administrative generalist (administrative officer, executive officer, or administrative assistant), organization and methods analysts, budget and fiscal workers, and personnel and office service workers. "Other staff" includes those persons who indicated they were performing some staff function other than the management activities stipulated. Clerical includes clerical supervisors as well as clerical workers.

gram administration, and a greater proportion of the women than of the men moved into management staff activities. Within the management staff field, there is a slight tendency for the men to move into budget and fiscal work and for the women to enter personnel work.

#### Factors in Career Mobility

By virtue of having responses from a substantial number of interns, it is possible to test statistically certain hypotheses commonly held concerning career mobility in the federal service.<sup>3</sup>

No significant association was found between upward mobility in the federal service and rural-urban background, social status background, condition of physical health, number of jobs held, or service in the armed forces. Male interns who grew up in rural areas achieved as high positions in the federal service as did those who grew up in urban centers. Breadth of experience, in terms of the number of jobs held, proved to be neither a handicap nor an advantage in moving upward in the federal hierarchy. The men who served in the armed forces achieved as high grades, on the average, as the men who did not serve in military organizations.

**Formal Education.**—The possession of a college degree did not prove to be a significant factor in achieving the higher grades in the federal service. Aside from the fact that a college degree enabled the intern to start his federal career at a slightly higher grade, no significant association was found between upward mobility in the federal system and amount of formal education possessed by the men interns. However, it is to be noted that the comparison is between those men who had "some college" education (but not a college degree) and those holding one or more college degrees. The men with "some college" education achieved as high positions in the federal hierarchy as those with degrees. It should be added that the interns having "some college" education were not asked how many years they had attended college.

The amount of formal education pos-

sessed by the men interns appears to be significantly associated with the functions they perform in the government service. Those men in program administration and program specialist activities tend to have slightly more formal education than those functioning in the management staff activities. Whereas approximately four-fifths of those in program administration and program specialist functions hold one or more college degrees, only a little over one-half of those in management staff work are college graduates.

The kind of formal education the interns received was found to be significantly related to upward mobility in the federal system. The most popular courses of study reported by the male interns were physical and biological science, business administration, public administration, liberal arts, and social science. In comparing the male interns who majored in these educational fields, it was found that those who studied public administration have achieved the highest grades in the federal service. Two-thirds of those majoring in public administration have achieved grade GS-12 or higher. Slightly over one-half of those majoring in the social sciences and in the physical and biological sciences; two-fifths of those majoring in business administration; and slightly over one-quarter of those majoring in liberal arts have achieved comparable grades.

**Mental Ability.**—In selecting candidates for the management intern programs, considerable reliance is placed on tests of mental ability. For the first five years of the intern programs, use was made of the 1944 edition of the American Council on Education Psychological Test, on which the norms are based on scores of 10,289 college freshmen women.

A comparison was made between the high and low scorers on the American Council Test to see if any significant association existed between these scores and vertical mobility and function performed in the federal service. This sub-sample consisted of those men who have been employed by the federal government five to ten years since participating in the management intern program. No significant as-

<sup>3</sup> The .05 level of probability has been used in testing the significance of difference.

sociation was found. Those who scored low on the psychological test achieved as high positions in the federal grade system as those who scored high, and low and high scorers were equally represented in program administration, program specialist, and management staff activities. However, it must be kept in mind that all of these men scored above the 50th percentile rank. Had there been a wider variation in mental scores, there no doubt would have been a significant association with achievement in the federal service.

**Authoritarian Scores.**—In the past few years a number of publications have been devoted to an analysis of the role of the authoritarian, or power-centered, person in contemporary society.<sup>4</sup> In a highly-structured, formal organization, such as the federal government, one would expect to find many persons who approach their operating problems in a rigid, "black-or-white," authoritarian fashion. It would be significant to inquire whether persons possessing such authoritarian characteristics tend to function in the more responsible positions in the hierarchy or whether they tend to occupy the lower grade positions. It would also be significant to discover whether the authoritarians tend to function in management staff, program specialist, or program administration activities.

In this study, the interns were asked to respond to a number of items selected from the authoritarian scale developed by Adorno.<sup>5</sup> These items were selected because of their high validity values, timeliness, and suitability. High scores on these items indicated authoritarianism; low scores indicated nonauthoritarianism.

According to their responses to this scale, the interns in this study tend to be slightly authoritarian in attitude. The

average scores for both men and women interns were slightly above the mid-point score between authoritarianism and non-authoritarianism. The men interns, however, tended to be slightly less authoritarian than the women.

A very slight but not statistically significant relationship was found between the possession of authoritarian characteristics and position in the federal hierarchy. The men in the higher grade positions tended to be slightly less authoritarian in attitude than the men in the lower grade positions.

A statistically significant association was found between function performed in the federal service and the possession of authoritarian traits. Men in the management staff functions tended to make higher authoritarian scores, to a significant degree, than did the men interns operating in program administration activities. The men in the program specialist activities scored slightly lower in authoritarianism than did the management staff men and slightly higher than those in program administration.

**Psychological Stress.**—Careful studies have shown that the life careers of most people are accompanied by feelings of distress and anxiety not accounted for by any organic defect. The normal process in society of "growing up" and taking on more responsible positions brings to the individual additional duties and obligations as well as increased gratifications and rewards. At the same time, these experiences expose him to new stresses and anxieties.

In order to probe the incidence of psychological stress among the management interns, they were asked a number of questions concerning their behavior in conflicting situations.<sup>6</sup> They were asked whether they tended to express angry feelings in interpersonal relations, how they felt when they "bottled-up" angry feelings, and to indicate the kinds of symptoms experienced when they were under stress.

No significant association was found between the responses to any of the stress items and upward mobility in the hier-

<sup>4</sup> A. H. Maslow, "The Authoritarian Character Structure," *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 18, 1943, pp. 401-412. Erich Fromm, *Escape from Freedom* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1941). T. W. Adorno, et al., *The Authoritarian Personality* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1950). H. D. Lasswell, "The Selective Effect of Personality on Political Participation" in *Studies in the Scope and Method of the Authoritarian Personality*, edited by Richard Christie and Marie Jahoda (The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1954).

<sup>5</sup> T. W. Adorno, *op. cit.*

<sup>6</sup> The questions were adapted from G. Saslow, R. M. Counts, and P. H. DuBois, "Evaluation of a New Psychiatric Screening Test," *Psychosomatic Medicine*, Vol. 13, No. 4, 1951, pp. 242-253.

archy. Those who had moved to the higher positions did not offer evidence of experiencing any greater stress than those occupying the lower positions in the federal structure. There was likewise no significant association between function performed and the incidence of psychological stress. Whether the males were in management staff activities, in program administration, or in program specialist functions, they experienced approximately the same amount of stress.

However, men differed significantly from women in evidence of psychological stress. In conflicting or anger-provoking situations, the men reported that they tended to "bottle-up" angry feelings, rarely expressed as much anger as they felt, and rarely expressed this anger to the person provoking it. The women, on the other hand, reported that they tended to give expression to their feelings, to express as much anger as they felt, and to express their anger toward the person provoking it. However, when angry feelings were "bottled-up" the women more often than the men felt sick and miserable about it, and the women reported a slightly, but not significantly, greater number of symptoms of psychological stress.

In the questionnaire the interns were asked to check the symptoms of stress they experienced when they "bottled-up" angry feelings. The ten chief symptoms of stress reported by the men and women, in order of frequency, are as follows:

Men	Women
1. Feel ill at ease	1. Feel jittery
2. Heart pounds	2. Excessive fatigue
3. Can't sleep	3. Crying
4. Can't study	4. Feel sad
5. Excessive fatigue	5. Feel ill at ease
6. Sweaty	6. Headache
7. Lose social interest	7. Indigestion
8. Butterflies in stomach	8. Can't sleep
9. Feel worthless	9. Can't study
10. Feel jittery	10. Butterflies in stomach

It is to be noted that of the ten most common symptoms reported, both men and women experience six of these. Whereas the women reported "feeling

jittery" as the most common symptom of stress, the men reported this as tenth in frequency. On the other hand, the men reported "feeling ill at ease" as the most common symptom, and the women indicated this to be fifth in frequency. Undoubtedly, the conceptions the men held of their masculine role in society, and the conceptions the women held of their feminine role in society, influenced them somewhat in their responses. In American society the male is expected to control his emotions, while the female is permitted more expression. This may partially account for the fact that the women placed "crying" rather high on the list. It is also probably more consistent with feminine behavior to "feel sad," or have a "headache," responses that were not listed by the men. It is probably inconsistent with the man's conception of himself to admit that he becomes "jittery" under stress, whereas he can safely admit that he may "feel ill at ease."

#### Career Expectations and Satisfactions

One of the objectives of the management training programs of the U. S. Civil Service Commission is to encourage each intern to formulate his career goals and career expectations. It is thus pertinent to examine the interns' career goals and objectives as a group. It is also pertinent to make some assessments of the satisfactions the interns have found in their careers to this point.

**Vertical Goals.**—In the questionnaire the interns were asked how high they expected to go in the federal hierarchy. The ques-



tion was phrased: "At the peak of your earning power, how much do you expect to earn each year?" The average (mean) federal grade aspiration for the men with the government is 15.4. One-third of the male interns in the government expect to achieve grade GS-16 or higher<sup>7</sup> and one-tenth of them expect to achieve grade GS-18 or higher. The women interns in the government service have lower aspirations than the men, namely, grade 12.5.

**Functional Goals.**—In the questionnaire the interns were asked to describe the kind of position they thought they would have at the peak of their careers. Approximately 95 percent of the men with the government expect to continue in the federal service and about five percent expect to enter private industry. Substantial proportions of the men in the government expect to continue in the same kind of work they are now performing. For example, two-thirds of those in program administration, three-fifths of those in budget and fiscal work, and almost one-half of those in personnel work expect to continue in the same function. The management staff generalists are about evenly divided in their functional aspirations: two-fifths expect to move into program administration and two-fifths expect to remain staff generalists.

The interns in the program specialist activities expressed the greatest interest in moving out of that function: approximately 97 percent expect to move into different kinds of work and almost one-half expect to become program administrators. The interns in organization and methods work also expressed considerable interest in other kinds of work. Almost two-fifths of these expect to become management staff generalists.

The women interns are even more stable than the men in their expectations for jobs in the future. None indicated the intention of leaving the federal service. Almost all of those in management staff work expect to continue in that type of work.

<sup>7</sup> The U. S. Civil Service Commission reports that approximately one-tenth of one percent of federal white collar positions in the federal government are grade GS-16 or higher. *Occupations of Federal White Collar Workers*, USCSC Pamphlet No. 56, August 1954.

However, all of those now performing clerical or clerical supervisory tasks expect to move out of this work. There is also an expectation for a greater proportion of the women interns to move into program administration work than is now functioning in that capacity.

**"Getting Ahead" in a Career.**—In the questionnaire the interns were asked to indicate their opinions about ways of "getting ahead" in a career. Nine statements of common ways of getting ahead were listed, and the interns were asked to rate each statement as "very important," "fairly important," or "hardly important at all." The responses of the interns in the federal government are tabulated in Table II and

TABLE II  
Ways of Getting Ahead in the Federal Service,  
In Percentages

<i>Ways of Getting Ahead</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Develop leadership skills . . . . .	90	94
Hard work and merit . . . . .	73	74
Become a technical expert . . . . .	44	67
Get more formal education . . . . .	31	33
Stay in one organization . . . . .	25	28
Get to know influential people . . . . .	18	13
Move from organization to organization . . . . .	16	9
Obedience to superiors . . . . .	14	15
Join outside organizations . . . . .	13	19
Number of Cases . . . . .	(287)	(55)

are placed in rank order from high to low in terms of the proportion of the interns who rated the statement as "very important."

Both men and women interns agree that the five most important ways of getting ahead in their governmental careers are (1) develop leadership skills, (2) work hard, (3) become a technical expert, (4) get more formal education, and (5) stay in one organization.

**Career Satisfaction.**—To assess the amount of satisfaction the interns have experienced in their careers, they were asked both general and specific questions. The general questions were: (1) "How do you rate the federal government as a place to work?" (2) "How well do you like your present job?" Four-fifths of the women and three-quarters of the men in the govern-

ment rated the federal government "good" or "very good" as an employer. Four-fifths of both men and women in the government indicated that they liked their present jobs "very much" or "fairly well."

In the questionnaire the interns were provided with ten statements of conditions which commonly cause dissatisfaction on the job. They were asked to rate these statements from one to five according to the amount of dissatisfaction each item caused them. The responses of the men interns in the government service are tabulated in Table III in descending order of amount of dissatisfaction caused. Almost one-half of the men in the government listed "inadequate pay," "full use of abilities not made," and "poor opportunities for advancement" as sources of job dissatisfaction. About one-third indicated that "too many rush assignments," "working with touchy people," and "failure to get help from others" were sources of dissatisfaction. One-quarter complained that their superiors did not delegate enough responsibility and that there was not enough opportunity to learn new skills. One-fifth said their jobs required too much routine work and lacked prestige.

Table III also indicates that a slight relationship exists between the position of the men interns in the federal grade structure and sources of job dissatisfaction. The lower the grade in the federal government, the greater the dissatisfaction registered by the men on all of the items except-

ing three. On two of these three, "working with touchy people" and "too many rush assignments," the dissatisfaction increased in the higher grades.

The women in the federal service expressed less dissatisfaction with their careers than did the men. The three main sources of dissatisfaction for the women were: (1) poor opportunities for advancement, (2) full use of abilities not made, and (3) lack of opportunity to learn new skills.

#### Interns Who Left the Government Service

A substantially smaller proportion of the men than of the women interns have left the federal service since they participated in the management intern programs sponsored by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Of the 312 men responding to the questionnaire, only eight percent (25 men) indicated they had left the federal government. Of the 68 women responding to the questionnaire, 30 percent (20 women) stated they had left the federal service.

In response to the question, "Why did you leave the federal government?" seventeen of the 25 men who had left said they had taken jobs in private industry because the latter offered greater financial rewards and better opportunities for advancement; two left to enter the armed forces; two left to get more formal education; two resigned because of differences with their superiors; and two left for unstated reasons. Thirteen of the 20 women who left the government did so because of

TABLE III  
Sources of Job Dissatisfaction for Male Interns, by Present Grade, in Percentages<sup>a</sup>

Source of Dissatisfaction	Total Sample	Present Grade			
		GS-9 or less	GS-10 & 11	GS-12	GS-13 or more
Inadequate pay . . . . .	49	60	52	51	32
Full use of abilities not made . . . . .	47	50	49	48	42
Poor opportunities for advancement . . . . .	43	46	54	41	28
Too many rush assignments . . . . .	36	32	33	41	37
Working with "touchy" people . . . . .	33	31	30	37	33
Failure to get help from others . . . . .	31	42	28	23	30
Superiors do not delegate enough responsibility . . . . .	26	22	31	27	23
Lack of opportunity to learn new skills . . . . .	25	31	23	27	18
Too much routine work . . . . .	20	36	21	12	13
Lack of prestige . . . . .	20	32	13	15	22
Number of cases . . . . .	(278)	(67)	(78)	(73)	(60)

<sup>a</sup> Percentage who said item caused "slight," "quite a bit," or "very much" dissatisfaction.

marriage and family responsibilities, four because of reduction-in-force, one because of disagreement with superior, one to live near her parents, and one because she preferred to live in a small town.

A comparison between the men who left the government for private industry and those who remained in the federal service shows that the former earned slightly more money than the latter in a comparable period of time. The interns in private industry worked for the government for an average of 6.5 years before leaving, and their average (mean) grade at the time they left was 9.1. In their 2.8 years of private employment they increased their income to equal grade 11.8 (in terms of the federal government pay scale), a net increase of 2.7 grades. For those who remained with the federal government, the average grade at the end of 6.5 years was 9.4, and in the next three years of employment they increased this to grade 10.7, a net increase of only 1.3 grades.

The men who left the government service for private industry differ significantly from the men who remained in the federal service in several respects. The men who left have substantially higher aspirations for income than those who remained. Men with the government place more emphasis on the security aspects of their jobs; those who left, stress high income in a job even though it may be insecure. The men who left the government scored higher in authoritarianism than did those who remained with the government.

The men who left federal employment do not hold the government in such high esteem as an employer as do those who remained with the government. On the other hand, those who left the government for private industry indicated that they have experienced more psychological stress and have found less satisfactions in their careers than did the interns who remained with the federal service. Their main source of dissatisfaction was that private

industry did not make full use of their abilities and capacities.

#### Summary and Conclusions

This article has presented information on the career mobility, career expectations, and career satisfactions of the men and women who participated in the management intern training program sponsored by the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.

Both men and women in this study have moved steadily from the lower status and lower paid position to the higher status and higher paid positions in the federal hierarchy. The men started their federal careers at slightly higher grades than the women; they moved up in the hierarchy at a slightly faster rate; and a greater proportion of the men than of the women achieved the higher grades in the federal system. The rate of advancement was approximately one grade per year at the lower grades and one-half grade per year at the higher grades. Although a college degree enabled the intern to start his federal career at a slightly higher grade, it proved to be of no special advantage in moving upward in the federal hierarchy. The *kind* of formal education received, however, was significantly related to upward mobility: those who majored in public administration achieved slightly higher grades than the others. Social origins and backgrounds and personal and intellectual characteristics did not appreciably relate to career mobility in the federal system.

The men interns who left the government service for private industry have earned slightly higher incomes than the men in the federal government, but they are under greater stress and they have experienced greater job dissatisfaction than the men in the federal service. The chief complaint of those in private industry is that their work does not make full use of their abilities. The chief complaint of the men in the government is inadequate pay.



# Correlates of the Supervisory Judgment Test

Milton M. Mandell

USERS of tests are always interested in learning what a test is measuring. While factor analysis is the common tool of the psychometrician for answering this question, the results of factor analysis tend to be almost as abstract as a validity coefficient to a nonpsychometrician. For this reason, other methods for stating what a test measures are needed, one of which is described below.

The Supervisory Judgment Test, a multiple-choice test containing questions on personnel practices and inter-personal relations from the supervisor's point of view has been validated in several studies and is in use in a number of organizations.<sup>1</sup> In order to find out what this test is measuring, 355 criterion ratings on a list of 80 items describing job behavior and personal characteristics were obtained for 83 first-level supervisors in the trades field for whom scores on the Supervisory Judgment Test were also available. The raters included colleagues, immediate superiors, and higher-level superiors.

The 83 scores on the Supervisory Judgment Test were dichotomized into a high group of 42 for whom there were 183 ratings, and a low group of 41 for whom there were 172 ratings. The percentage of each group for whom each of the 80 items was marked as descriptive was obtained and critical ratios computed for each item.

The list on the following page contains

<sup>1</sup> See, for example: Milton M. Mandell, "The Selection of Foremen," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 7, 1947, pp. 385-397; Milton M. Mandell, "Validation of Group Oral Performance Test," *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 3, 1950, pp. 179-185; Charles P. Sparks, "Limitations of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory in Selection of Supervisors," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 35, 1951, pp. 403-406; and *Development of Tests for Wage Board Supervisors*, PRB Technical Research Note 27, Department of the Army, Washington, June, 1954.

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the items which showed a significant difference between the two groups at the 1 or 5 percent levels of confidence, and for each item, the percentages of the total number of ratings on which that item was checked as descriptive of those receiving high and of those receiving low test scores.

It is interesting to note that a large proportion of these items are in the personality field and include some of those considered fundamental to supervisory success, even though the test does not purport to measure personality characteristics. It is quite possible, considering the paucity of validity data for personality inventories that are available, that this test is measuring important personality characteristics as effectively as some inventories.

These data also provide information relevant to a widely held hypothesis, namely, that a supervisory judgment test measures only the ability to figure out the right course of action in a "paper" situation rather than the equally or more important ability of applying this understanding to actual behavior. Many of the above items relate to behavior characteristics and the data seem to justify, based on this sample, the rejection of the hypothesis that people who can give the right test answers don't follow their precepts in actual practice.

## Summary

1. Using a check-list criterion seems to offer significant promise in answering the questions of consumers of tests regarding the characteristics measured.

2. The above data support the hypothesis that nonpersonality tests may be effective measures of personality characteristics or that personality and judgment are not independent factors.

3. Knowing the right course of action seems to be related to doing the right things.

ITEM	PERCENT	PERCENT
	HIGH ON TEST	LOW ON TEST
1. Loses his temper often .....	6	18 <sup>a</sup>
2. Likes to act like a "big shot" .....	6	12 <sup>b</sup>
3. Never tells the men what's going on .....	4	10 <sup>b</sup>
4. Always reads technical magazines .....	15 <sup>a</sup>	6
5. Is a good listener .....	66 <sup>a</sup>	51
6. Keeps his men on their toes .....	52 <sup>b</sup>	41
7. Likes to tell jokes .....	9	24 <sup>a</sup>
8. Sets a good example for his men .....	67 <sup>a</sup>	50
9. Encourages suggestions .....	57 <sup>b</sup>	44
10. Gets rattled easily .....	5	11 <sup>b</sup>
11. Likes to spend time doing what his men do .....	11	21 <sup>b</sup>
12. You can always depend on what he says .....	63 <sup>a</sup>	45
13. Makes good decisions .....	50 <sup>b</sup>	38
14. Orders men around .....	6	17 <sup>a</sup>
15. Always explains when he asks a man to do something .....	53 <sup>b</sup>	40
16. Gives clear-cut instructions .....	53 <sup>a</sup>	38
17. Studies on his own time .....	18 <sup>b</sup>	10
18. Lets men know how they are doing .....	47 <sup>b</sup>	36
19. Is good at judging men .....	35 <sup>b</sup>	24
20. Always fighting with somebody .....	0	4 <sup>a</sup>
21. Frequently comes to work tired .....	0	4 <sup>a</sup>
22. Has a few friends .....	6	13 <sup>b</sup>
23. Sticks by his decisions whatever happens .....	6	12 <sup>b</sup>
24. Schedules work well in advance .....	49 <sup>b</sup>	38
25. The men do not particularly like or dislike him .....	18	33 <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Indicates 1% level of confidence.<sup>b</sup> Indicates 5% level of confidence.

# School Recruitment: An Answer to the Clerical Shortage

—Harry P. Petrie

**W**ITH the current demand for clerical personnel at an all-time peak, the Recruitment Division of the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission has pioneered a School Recruitment Program for typist clerks and stenographers, that is, we believe, unique in its field.

Directed specifically toward graduating high school and junior college students, the County approach contains two dramatically new features:

1. Examinations on campus for the convenience of student candidates.
2. Actual job offers made at the time of examination.

This new plan provides a minimum of waiting and uncertainty for the student candidates and also allows the County to speak for qualified students before they have received offers of employment from industrial or other government agencies.

Since the qualifying examinations are usually held about six weeks before graduation, the successful candidate who accepts a County appointment has the assurance of knowing that a job is waiting upon graduation. Student candidates tell us that this is one of the most attractive aspects of the whole program.

First conducted in April, 1955 for June graduates, the Student Recruitment Program was so successful that a second campaign, this time for January graduates, was authorized. Frankly, it was at the specific request of County department heads that definite plans were made to conduct the January program. The young June graduates, most of them without previous clerical experience, had apparently adapted themselves so well to County office requirements that their supervisors were anxious

to maintain this new method of recruitment.

It would be a lengthy process to outline in detail the entire recruitment pattern used in promoting this program. However, the highlights of the two-month drive can be briefly described.

## How the Program Operates

**Anticipate Vacancies.**—First, before any formal announcement is made, all County departments are contacted to determine the number of anticipated vacancies for clerical personnel in the various offices. We also check the areas of the County in which these vacancies exist. This research makes it possible for us to tell prospective candidates approximately how many jobs are waiting and where these jobs are located. It also gives us some idea of the total number of candidates the County can absorb, and allows us to plan our program accordingly.

**Contact Schools.**—The next step is the formal announcement of the Student Recruitment Program. A special bulletin with a personal letter is prepared and sent to every principal, employment counselor, and commercial department chairman in the high schools and junior colleges of the County. This announcement outlines the program, asks for cooperation in presenting the details to the students, and indicates that a County representative will visit the school within a few days.

**Personal Visits to Schools.**—This feature of personal contact, new to the January program, establishes a real bond of communication between the school and the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission. Employment counselors have enthusiastically praised this evidence of personal interest in the employment future of their students. By visiting the schools, the County representative is able to enlist the active cooperation of teachers and coun-

• **Harry P. Petrie** is Secretary and Chief Examiner for the Civil Service Commission of the County of Los Angeles, California.

selsors in encouraging outstanding students to apply for County appointments. In June, County contact with the schools was limited to telephone follow-ups after the initial announcement. The January emphasis on personal face-to-face contact has resulted in a marked improvement in school participation and student interest. For instance, in June only 7 percent of the potential schools scheduled on-campus examinations. In January, although the number of potential schools was limited due to the elimination of mid-year classes, 26 percent of the potential participants requested on-campus examinations.

At the time of the visit to the school, the County representative carries a news release for the school newspaper, a supply of attractive bulletins announcing the program and telling students to contact their counselor, and a good supply of application forms for the placement office and various counselors.

**Hold Examinations.**—A two-week period is designated for the School Recruitment Campaign. The examination consists of two parts: (1) a one-hour qualifying written test, and (2) an oral interview. At the time of the written test, a County recruitment representative speaks briefly to the candidates on the advantages of County employment. There is ample opportunity at this time for any questions students might have regarding the County and its employment policies. The informal nature of this discussion period relaxes the candidates and gives the County a more personal aspect in their thinking.

Generally, the written tests at the schools are scheduled on one day and the interviews plus employment referrals for qualified students approximately two days later. Employment representatives from County departments are present on the day the interview is scheduled. These representatives talk with all students who receive high interview scores. The students who are selected by County departments are offered jobs to begin after graduation.

So, at least a month before finishing school, top candidates have been secured for County offices. They know precisely where they are to work and when they be-

gin employment. This single aspect of the Student Recruitment Program has proved to be most satisfactory, not only to the student but also to the County and its various departments.

**Make Placements.**—The last Saturday of each School Recruitment Campaign is designated as "Wind Up Day." This day has two major functions: (1) The examination of those students from schools where it has not been possible to conduct local examinations, and (2) the placement of the above students plus those who have qualified at the schools where examinations were conducted but who have not yet been placed. The so-called "Wind Up Day" is held at the County Civil Service Building. Representatives are present from all County departments with vacancies for typist clerk and stenographer. A large number of placements are usually made at this time.

**Hold "Open House."**—In order to maintain the interest of all students who have qualified during the School Recruitment Program, a luncheon and tour of County departments is held, midway between the end of the Program and the date on which the class will graduate. All students with sufficiently high scores are invited to this event, whether or not they have received appointments. We are attempting to keep alive the interest of those who have been offered appointments but we are just as interested in letting those candidates who have not been appointed know that it may still be possible for them to work for the County. Both the counselors and their students board the Sheriff's Department buses and spend an enjoyable afternoon viewing the most interesting County offices. Refreshments are served during the afternoon and the day is climaxed by a visit to the offices of the Board of Supervisors and a personal talk by a member of the Board. This affair provides a fitting climax to the School Recruitment Program.

#### Results of Two Campaigns

During the January campaign, a total of 328 candidates participated in the School Program. 159 qualified, and, to date, 72 appointments have been made. It is reasonable to expect that there will be a

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substantial increase when the final figures are known. In the June Program, some 784 students took the qualifying examination. Of this number, 355 successfully passed and were interviewed by Civil Service examiners. Over 200 candidates were eligible for employment, and 146 appointments were made. Those eligible but not appointed serve as a "pool" from which County administrators can draw replacements or additional personnel.

### Summary

In studying reports of the Program, it seems that its impact on the schools themselves is considerable. Especially is this true in certain schools whose candidates scored below the general average. One high school plans to revamp its entire teaching emphasis in certain fields so as to better prepare their students for County employment. This is just one indication of the interest educators are taking in the

County School Recruitment Program.

Of course, the ultimate success of any program depends upon whether or not it is practical enough to be continued. Do the results justify the means? In our case, there is overwhelming evidence that the high caliber personnel obtained through the program has repaid the County many times over for the expense involved.

Today, the competition for clerical personnel is almost unbelievable. Most high school placement offices report three requests for every student available. To maintain the high standards of County employment, it has become necessary to reorient some of our traditional recruitment practices. The immediate success of this Student Recruitment Program has convinced us that it is an important answer to our long-standing problem of locating a constant source of competent clerical personnel. The drive for June '56 graduates begins in March.

# Civil Service in India

Winston W. Crouch

GOVERNMENT employment in India ranks extremely high in prestige. In a country where there is constantly a low income level and a high degree of unemployment among school graduates this is not entirely surprising. The high status of government employment is due partly to the Asian's attitude of respect towards officialdom and the bureaucracy. It is also due in part to the carry-over of attitudes developed during the two centuries of British rule in India. The government of India under Britain was government by the executive and by the civil servants. In a land where there was relatively little industry, and therefore no great class of industrial managers came into existence, the civil servant stood extremely high in prestige. Educated Indians, secondary school and university graduates alike, have regarded the various ranks of the civil service as prizes of great merit for many decades. The social system of India gives the white collar worker a high place. Furthermore, government service is protected employment and it pays well by comparison to other means of livelihood.

## Transition to Independence

Independence has produced a number of changes in the structure and processes of Indian government. The government is no longer dominated by the executive in the manner it was prior to 1947. The elected legislators, particularly those who are in the higher ranks of the omnipotent Congress party, have a right to consider themselves among the rulers of modern India. The civil services are having to learn to adapt themselves to a parliamentary system that is locally elected (not in far-away England) and which is dominated by poli-

ticians who are still in the first flush of power. Nevertheless government employment, particularly that in the higher services, continues to enjoy great prestige for reasons suggested above. Furthermore, the higher services have been quite successful in the struggle for influence and place in the power structure of the new regime. This struggle was unusual in many respects because of the unique manner in which self-government was achieved in India.

Jaharwalal Nehru and other leaders of the Congress Party who were given the task of governing India when Britain transferred power in 1947 had had little experience holding office in British days. Many, including Nehru, were attorneys whose work had been advocacy of programs and argument over issues. Except for brief periods in which the Congress had permitted its leaders to head state ministries, none had learned what was involved in planning and guiding the work of a department or a government. Neither had they known what it was to work with the bureaucracy in carrying on the day-to-day business. The Congress Party had chosen civil disobedience. Often Congress leaders had engaged in activities which led to their imprisonment. Consequently their principal contacts with the Indian members of the civil service during British days had been unpleasant. They were inclined to view the civil servants who worked with the British as their opponents or at least as satellites of the governing power.

When an Indian government took office, Vallabhbhai Patel, whom Ghandi had selected to be the second man in the Congress organization, took the post of Minister of Home Affairs and carried out the practical tasks of organizing the civilian services. An attorney by profession and a Congress worker by choice, Patel showed a great organizing ability both in party work and in government office. Under his leadership the great majority of Indian members of the existing services were induced to

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stay at their posts and serve the new government even though other elements were withdrawing. The British members of the services left for home, and those Muslims who elected to go with the new government of Pakistan withdrew from the Indian services. Under Patel's practical-minded administration the civil services were given considerable protection from the suspicions and hostility of the politicians, and guarantees were worked out to protect the employment status rights of high ranking career administrators. The administrative pledges which he negotiated respecting retirement rights, pay scales, and other privileges of the higher civil service groups who had been recruited by the British Indian government were translated into constitutional guarantees when the Constitution of India was adopted in 1951.

Among the factors that have helped establish the Government of India as a going concern have been the loyalty of the civil services and the willingness of those services to operate under their new, parliamentary masters. In a country such as India, where there is a very small echelon of trained and experienced persons to undertake the vast administrative tasks of keeping the domestic peace and order, to say nothing of the much-needed construction and welfare programs, trained civil servants must be pillars of the new order. Gradually the top political leadership has come to recognize this fact. The Prime Minister in particular has come to feel that he must rely upon the civil servants if his government's programs are to be carried out after they have been approved by an eager Parliament. There was no effective alternative.

In many respects, however, this working relationship between the career politicians and the career administrators rests upon an uneasy alliance. The Prime Minister frequently lectures the higher services about their alleged lack of democratic mannerisms and pressures them to buy home-spun cloth, dress in costumes now favored by the politicians, and live the austere life. Lesser politicians are inclined to be jealous of the high-rank administra-

tors who move easily in high places, enjoy good salaries by Indian standards, and play important roles in the conduct of affairs. In the foreign service, career civil servants have been given many of the attractive posts that political leaders are now beginning to seek. Career administrators have also been placed in some of the key posts for the working up of domestic development programs. There is constant agitation in the press and in political speeches that top government salaries should be reduced—a general leveling downward of the high-placed. Reports come in from many sources of the spoils activities of local political leaders who seek to bludgeon the administrators into accepting their henchmen or adopting the local politician's course of action. The spoils pressures are those of individual politicians and local cliques. So long as one party has the overwhelming strength of the Congress Party, party politics and patronage in the sense that it has been known historically in the United States is relatively meaningless.

#### Civil Service Commissions

The Constitution-framers of India attempted to establish some controls to offset the patronage seekers. In doing so, they accepted the administrative pattern set down by the Government of India Act, 1935. The national government and each of the self-governing states is required to establish a civil service commission (titled "public service commission") to conduct examinations for entrance into government service, advise the governments upon promotions and other personnel policies, and to hear appeals from dismissed career employees. The Indian commissions differ in several respects from those in the United States. At least half the membership of each commission must be composed of persons who have had ten or more years of experience in governmental service. The chairman of the national commission, for example, is a career civil servant. The Madras state public service commission is composed entirely of retired government servants. Many observers in India insist that this proviso regarding government ex-

perience was put into the law to ensure continuance of control by the bureaucracy. Prestige of the commissions has been improved in several instances by the appointment of outstanding university professors or administrators, attorneys, and engineers. Membership on a civil service commission is a full-time occupation and commissioners are expected to take a direct part in the preparation and conduct of examinations (including written examinations, appraisal of education and experience, and oral examinations). A particularly heavy duty in this respect falls upon the commission chairman. Technical staffs are comparatively small and professionally trained personnel technicians are almost nonexistent.

Appointments to the national commission are made by the President; those to state bodies are made by the Governor of the state. Elaborate legal precautions have been established to protect public service commissioners both from blandishments and appeals to their ambitions. A commissioner's term is six years, and he may be removed only by the President with the advice of the Supreme Court. The Constitution bars a commissioner from further government service except on another public service commission; the chairman of the union commission is debarred from all further government appointments. Therefore, a man who will accept appointment to a public service commission in India must either be nearing the end of his career or be in an occupation in which it is not necessary to consider government favors. Salaries of commissioners are, by Indian standards, good; and the amount of compensation may not be reduced by the government of the day.

Responsibilities of the public service commission are restricted chiefly to matters pertaining to examinations, placement, and discipline. A commission's powers in regard to examinations and placement are strong. It determines the content of, administers, and scores the examinations. It establishes the rank order of candidates; and the "rule of one" is generally adhered to—the administration must appoint from the top of the list and in the

order established by the commission. In disciplinary matters the government is required to seek the advice of the commission, although the commission does not have authority to override an administrative decision.

Determination of rules governing classification, selection standards, promotion, conduct, and discipline is done by the executive branch. In fact, the rules which determine the jurisdiction of the public service commission are determined to a large extent by the executive. In the national government, the responsibility for initiating personnel policies and for guiding the major personnel transactions lies with the Ministry of Home Affairs. More particularly this function rests with the Establishment Officer to the Government of India, who is a Joint Secretary to the Ministry of Home Affairs. Rules for recruitment, appointment, promotion, and classification originate in this ministry and are laid before the Parliament for consideration. Public service commission recommendations and comments are invited prior to submission of proposals to Parliament. After discussion by Parliament, the Cabinet presents the rules to the President for promulgation.

In the state governments, the Chief Minister has undisputed leadership in personnel matters. This official, in turn, leans heavily in most of the larger states such as West Bengal, Madras, and Bombay upon his Chief Secretary (the top man in the civil service) for advice and technical assistance and for carrying out the wishes of the government. Rules are promulgated by the Governor after they have been developed by the ministry. The Chief Secretary, as the principal civil servant in charge of personnel management, is usually in frequent communication with the chairman of the state public service commission.

Public service commissions are given an indirect check upon the executive through the devices of publicity and parliamentary pressure. The Constitution directs the Union Public Service Commission to report to the President; state bodies are to make their reports to the Governor. In such a report a commission has opportu-



nity to publicize its work and to report any disagreements that may have occurred between it and the government over appointments, promotions, disciplinary matters, or other personnel policies. The chief executive in each instance is required to lay the commission report before the legislative body for information and debate.

The union commission has reported relatively few disputes, but several of the state reports have set forth bitter tales of frustration and bickering. One of the most common complaints has been that a ministry ignores the commission's request for information regarding an appointment that has been made without examination. Another point of frequent dispute between state commissions and their governments is the exemption of positions from commission jurisdiction. The Constitution authorizes the Governor to promulgate, with the advice of the state ministry, regulations exempting positions from civil service examination. Although regulations may have been established by regular constitutional procedure, much dispute arises over the interpretation of their applicability to a particular position that is held by an incumbent favored by the government of the day.

Debates on commission reports are acrimonious and give opposition parties a chance for a parliamentary field day. Voting strength of the state governments has usually been such, however, that no immediate results of the debates are to be observed. Naturally enough the governments attempt to avoid having matters adverse to them brought out. Commission reports are not furnished to the public, although newspaper accounts give extensive coverage to the legislative debates on them. In theory the submission of a commission report to the legislative body is sound: it should bring a politically responsible executive into line with properly established policies. In practice, there are many shortcomings in the procedure, particularly so long as there is an imbalance of party strength in the legislative bodies.

#### The Services

India, like many large-scale employer

governments, has several separately organized government services. Candidates are recruited to each of the services at an early age level, and the service member develops his career exclusively within the particular service. Included among the services for which the Union Public Service Commission examines are: Administrative (I.A.S.), Police (I.P.S.), Foreign (I.F.S.), Audit and Accounts, Customs and Excise, Income-Tax Officers, Postal, Survey of India, Forest, Central Engineering, Railway Service of Engineers, Superior Telegraph Engineering and Wireless Branches of the Posts and Telegraphs Department. A Central Secretariat Service comprises all posts from assistant to under secretary in the Central Secretariat at New Delhi; also some posts in the line departments which are attached to the central ministries.

The union services mentioned above are generally known as the "superior services" and comprise employees who are in the managerial or directing billets. Recruitment is almost entirely from among university graduates. Below this group are the Subordinate Services, each of which is usually divided into an executive branch, ministerial branch, and inferior branch. The executive includes middle management and specialist positions. Clerks and accountants make up the ministerial branch, and peons and messengers comprise the inferior branch. Recruitment and appointment to the subordinate services are performed in most instances by the departments, in accordance with educational standards set forth in rules promulgated by the President. In some instances selection boards are used to determine the relative merit of candidates.

Promotion from one grade to another within the superior and subordinate services is largely determined by the department in consultation with the Establishment Office. Seniority counts for a great deal, although the personal record of the employee as evidenced in reports by "reporting seniors" apparently counts very heavily. The threat of an unfavorable report hangs heavily over all employees' heads.

Promotion from the ministerial to the

executive branch is provided for, and usually a fixed percentage of the higher posts must be filled by promotion. Public service commission jurisdiction extends to the determination of methods and standards of examining for such promotions. Promotions from the subordinate services to their related superior services is also provided for; and in connection with this type of action the public service commission has a definite responsibility. Promotion is by nomination of the department, followed by determination of the candidates' fitness by the public service commission.

Competition among university graduates to enter government service has been so keen that most of the ministerial and executive branches of the subordinate services as well as the superior services have been filled with them. The story is reported that the executive branch in the accounts service in one of the larger states is staffed entirely by first class honor graduates! With relatively slow promotion and a few opportunities available, pressure upon the process of selecting for promotion becomes intense. Departmental morale is a problem under such circumstances.

#### The All-India Services

Two groups of civil servants, known as the All-India services, are of special interest. These are the Indian Administrative Service (I.A.S.) and the Indian Police Service (I.P.S.). Both are somewhat unusual devices for extending national influence into state operations. Both are similar to the Indian Civil Service and Indian Police Service of British times, although they have been adapted to the new constitutional pattern. The Indian Constitution permits the union government to establish an All-India service if it secures agreement of the states. To date, however, only these two which were established prior to the adoption of the Constitution have been organized.

Members of the Indian Administrative Service may hold posts either in the national bureaucracy or in a state government, and rotation between the two is a common thing. Most of the key administrative positions in the Central Secretariat

and in attached departments at New Delhi are filled either by members of this service or by those senior administrators who were originally recruited in the Indian Civil Service during British days (and who still are entitled to be called "I.C.S. officers"). In state secretariats, the positions of chief secretary and secretary of each ministry, except law, must be filled by I.A.S. members. In the state governments' field services, most district officers are members of the I.A.S. Within the states' administrative organizations members of the I.A.S. fill the principal posts. They are assisted or seconded by members of the state civil service, whose members will not normally "graduate" to the I.A.S. It is a sound generalization that the I.A.S., together with the remnants of the old I.C.S., constitutes an administrative elite corps in the administrative hierarchy of India.

Because the members of the I.A.S. belong to a national corps they enjoy considerable protection from the onslaughts of state politicians. Their salary scales, promotion opportunities, and career potentialities are determined by national policies and national officials. Every I.A.S. member, however, is identified with a particular state whether he serves in a national post or a state post. He is by no means a bird of passage in a state administrative organization. He is primarily a member of a state cadre and, when serving in a national government post, he is on loan—even though the assignment may last for several years.

Indian Police Service members similarly fill the higher administrative posts within the state police services, and the conditions of their service are determined by national rules. Officers in the investigative and security units of the union government are drawn from the I.P.S. cadres of the states for tours of duty of varying length.

Both All-India services are governed by personnel policies similar to those which apply to commissioned officers of the armed services. Indeed, the service regulations refer to members as officers. Each member holds a personal rank regardless of the billet or position he holds at a specific time. His rank is determined by

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seniority and professional qualifications, the latter element being judged at stated intervals by boards of review composed of senior members of the service. These judgments are based upon fitness reports submitted regularly by senior administrators with whom the officers have worked. As in any career officer group, there is a considerable *esprit de corps* within these services—group unity and loyalty.

Selection, initial training, and assignment of members of these All-India services lies with the union government. Each year the Union Public Service commission conducts a consolidated examination for these and other superior services. It is of an essay type and is based upon broad statements of educational subjects. Hundreds of university graduates who have won first class honors in school compete; and from the top of the eligible list approximately 50 are chosen for the Administrative Service and 10 for the Police Service. Selection is without reference to state residence, caste, or religion.<sup>1</sup> Following the appointment, the successful candidates are assigned to government-supported training schools: the administrators in Delhi, the police at Mount Abu in Bombay state. The administrative training school stresses law, Indian languages, and administrative problems and theory. The police school emphasizes law and the administrative problems of police work.

Upon completion of training, the recruits are assigned to a state—usually one other than the recruit's home state. Each state has an established cadre, or permissible strength, of I.A.S. personnel, therefore the number of new recruits assigned per year will vary as vacancies occur by reason of death or retirement, or by occasional expansion of the cadre. Thus far, a state normally receives three or four new I.A.S. appointees per year. Upon as-

signment, a new graduate from the school is sent into the field to work with a district officer where he will learn various phases of law enforcement and will gain experience with the myriad problems of field administration. After about three years of field experience, the I.A.S. member may be moved to the state headquarters and posted to an office in the secretariat. After a further period of time, some officers will be posted to the Central Secretariat at New Delhi for a maximum tour of duty of three years, after which they will return to their state. According to policy, a rotation between secretariat and field service and between state and central posts will continue throughout the officer's career. Furthermore, the I.A.S. officer is considered an administrative generalist, capable of performing in a variety of functional fields. Therefore it is deemed advisable to move an officer through several types of assignments.

In 1947 the Government of India undertook a special recruitment program to fill up the allocated numbers of the I.A.S. Age levels were raised to permit men of experience and maturity to enter, and men with higher-than-usual education or appropriate experience were examined by a special procedure. This special recruitment brought in men from the state civil services of the older states (Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, West Bengal); the legal profession; and university teaching staffs. No special in-service training was given this group—the demands of the work program did not permit it. Some training has been provided by rotation of assignment similar to that given to the younger, regular recruits. Because the regular, annual recruitment of university graduates has been so strictly limited in numbers, the government is again faced with a proposal that a special recruitment effort be made to fill some 400 vacancies in the service.

### Economic Administration

From time to time the Government of India has announced that it has under study proposals to create an economic administrative service that would provide a

<sup>1</sup> Prior to 1947 recruitment to the services was based upon quotas assigned to the various religious communities. Lower caste members were not considered for other than menial jobs. The only such allocation of quotas permitted or directed by law under the Constitution of 1951 is the quota or preference reserved for members of the so-called Scheduled Castes, or low castes. Most services, including the I.A.S., must give preference to appointment of a Scheduled Caste candidate if he qualifies in the examinations.

top management echelon for the nationalized industries.<sup>2</sup> The national government has taken over the domestic and international airlines from Indian companies, and it operates an aircraft plant, steel mills, a fertilizer plant, shipyards, and an electrical equipment factory. A regional authority, organized on lines similar to the Tennessee Valley Authority, generates electricity, conducts flood control work, and is preparing to engage in a number of functions in the Damodar Valley in Bihar and West Bengal. These and other present and proposed undertakings require management personnel. In addition to the national projects, most of the states have electricity authorities and some have other industrial enterprises.

An important problem in India is: Where to find experienced administrators? The private industrial sector has been small, and has been confined to a few types of enterprise—textiles, banking, and a few others. With few exceptions, managers in private enterprise are in low repute with the political leaders. In this situation, the governments have turned to the top rank career civil servants. Almost every government operated industrial enterprise is headed by an Indian Civil Service Officer, and several additional key positions are filled in the same manner. The government states that this is a temporary borrowing of personnel, and that in due time it proposes to develop a career service group that will be trained and have experience in the particular intricacies of industrial management. Meanwhile, some employees in the industrial enterprises have been sent abroad for periods of instruction. Technical experts have been brought in under auspices of the Colombo plan and of the U.S. Technical Cooperation Mission to advise and to train Indian personnel. Thus far, however, no clear development of an industrial personnel plan has taken place. Each establishment fends for itself. A few, such as the coal organization, the penicillin, housing, and cable factories, are subject to direction by the Ministry of Production.

<sup>2</sup> Such a plan was discussed by A. D. Gorwala, *Report on Public Administration* (New Delhi, 1953).

### Community Development

Interest throughout the world has been focused upon India's programs for community development, agricultural improvement, and basic education. The administration of these programs combines national and state organizations. At the top is the National Planning Commission composed of appointed officials, including the prime minister and minister of finance. This body is served by a small staff composed of economists and generalist administrators. The Planning Commission and its staff review plans proposed by the states, draw up plans for the development of the nation as a whole, and advise the national government on economic matters. The Community Project Administration, independent of any ministry and reporting to the Cabinet, comprises a number of specialists and a few generalist administrators engaged in planning and encouraging community development projects. The principal field work in administering national development comes within the jurisdiction of the state governments, however. Within each state secretariat a development department has been organized to plan and direct the state's work. Field staffs have not been large. Because the field work must be done in the rural villages, considerable effort has been expended in training the workers to understand the problems and attitudes of the villagers. Community development work is based upon the idea that projects must be those that appeal to the villagers as ones that will meet their particular needs. It is also based upon the idea that projects shall be chiefly those which can be accomplished by village labor and with only a small outlay of capital. The community worker must be prepared to guide different types of projects and to teach the elementary skills that may be required. In selecting workers, an effort has been made to choose university graduates who have a background of rural living, who will be sympathetic to village life, and who show promise of leading grass-roots development efforts. There is much similarity between the development worker in present-day India and the county farm agent in the

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United States. The personnel policy represented in this program is indeed one that contrasts markedly with previous concepts of the government service in India. Because it is so new, time and effort will be required to implement it successfully.

### Summary

In conclusion, a difficult personnel problem in India today involves the recruitment and training of personnel qualified

to carry out the field work involved in national development. The central services and the headquarters establishments are attractive to large numbers of candidates. The field services do not yet enjoy a similar prestige. The young men and women of India, as do those of many other countries, appear to enjoy city living in preference to serving in the country—although in the latter area is to be found the vital challenge of national service.



- What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

This issue of the *Review* contains an article titled "A Flexible 'Rule of Three' for Public Personnel Selection." The author, Dr. Dorothy C. Adkins, raises some questions about the effects of this method of certification and suggests a modification that would permit greater latitude to operating officials.

Most civil service agencies operate under the rule of three. The editors therefore felt that readers would be interested in what representatives of three state personnel departments that use some other certification procedure have to say about the results of their policy.

### The Question . . . .

*Traditional practice in competitive personnel selection is to rank eligibles on a list based on their final grades. Typically, the ensuing certification procedure restricts the appointing officer to a choice among the three highest ranking persons resulting from the examination. Do you believe the alternative approach used by your agency will earn net benefits in terms of better selection and placement?*

### The Replies . . . .

**CHARLES H. CUSHMAN**, Personnel Administrator, State of Rhode Island.

When the Civil Service Act of 1939 introduced the merit system into Rhode Island, it included the "rule of one" which required the certification and appointment of the ranking eligible on the appropriate list. In addition, since there was no provision for blanketing or qualifying examinations, every employee of the state was subject to open competitive examina-

tion and removal from his position if he failed to head the list.

This requirement was unpopular with the public, and the effect on employees can easily be imagined. Morale dropped to a low point, resignations multiplied and resentment against the "merit system" was universal. When long-term employees with demonstrated capacities were terminated because their scores placed them second or third on the lists by one or two tenths of a point, the resulting publicity was anything but good for the new civil service program.

Civil service became an important issue in the 1940 campaign which resulted in a political turnover. In the next session of the Legislature, in 1941, the law was amended to include the "rule of three" and provision was made for blanketing employees with ten or more years of service and permitting those with over five and less than ten years to take qualifying examinations. It is fortunate that the organization and development of the Civil Service Department itself was a major deterrent in the conduct of other examinations. Otherwise the result might have been abolition rather than amendment. An important factor in the retention of the law was the grant-in-aid program of the federal government which, of course, required a merit system covering those agencies of the state eligible to receive the grants.

At any rate, the law remained in force with the modifications above indicated. Then began the "plowing of the long, hard furrow" to win back the confidence of the public and to build up the morale of the employees. Over the years this has been accomplished, and we believe the foundation is now sound and the principal firmly established.

In 1951, there was created a Department of Administration and the Civil Service Department became a Division of this Department. In 1952, the old Civil Service Act was replaced by a new law which created a "Division of Personnel Administration and provided for the Operation and Regulation of a Merit System

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of Personnel Administration." This law continued the "rule of three."

In May of 1955, the law was amended to require that six names be certified except that when three or more names, but less than six, appear on a list, the list must be used. Our experience under this amendment is hardly sufficient to qualify us to offer valid conclusions as to its value. However, certain generalizations may be reached, and my current belief with regard to whether benefits in terms of selection and placement will result will be offered with the reservation that future events might effect a change in belief.

I sometimes fear that in our zeal to act strictly within the provisions of our laws and rules and the administrative procedures we, ourselves, establish, we may overlook the chief purpose for which we are established—which is to relieve the Appointing Authority of the task of finding qualified workers and to assist or serve him in this capacity so that he may devote his time to operations.

We should remember that he has an important job to do; that the law does not contemplate that we usurp his prerogatives; that his record depends on the efficiency of his staff; and that what is best suited to aid him in attaining the objectives of his law will also assist in attaining the objectives of ours.

Several years ago we sought and obtained an amendment which permits certification of the entire Re-employment List rather than a fixed number of names. This permits an Appointing Authority to reach a former employee who has been trained in the work of the Agency, regardless of rank on this list. The plan has worked well and our prestige has been enhanced as a result.

Obviously, the conditions surrounding the use of Re-employment Lists differ widely from those associated with Employment Lists. However, I do not believe that a fixed number of names is the answer we seek. If the last name certified is separated from the next eligible by a fraction of a point in one certification and the top three or five or whatever number is required by law, in another case, discloses differences of five, ten, or twenty points, how can we expect our opponents to become converts to the merit system?

What is the answer? I wish I knew. I believe it will be found and when it is, I think there will be included a formula which will give consideration to both numbers and scores and also to the number of vacancies; the level of the class; the labor market and other factors.

It may be that the eventual rule will consist of several formulae, each to be applied under

specific conditions. For instance, in areas where recruiting is good and long lists result, the certification process might safely provide wider choice in selection; when recruiting is bad and we are fortunate to get a list with one or two names, as frequently happens in technical and professional classes, it seems silly and extravagant to invalidate the list by statute simply because the stated number of names cannot be obtained. This invalidation frequently permits the appointment of a provisional whose qualifications do not measure up to those of the persons on the invalid list, and thus the way is paved for future headaches when a new examination is conducted.

And now, to the question posed in the assignment. I believe our certification of six names, with the provision that three or more constitutes a valid list, has done no injury to the merit principle. It has caused difficulty in certifications involving large numbers of eligibles and where several agencies were concerned. I freely admit the possibility that political or other considerations may have a slightly wider field in which to be applied. However, no formula can provide freedom of choice in selection and, at the same time, deny the freedom it purports to provide. Nor can we deny the fact that each person certified has demonstrated sufficient ability to meet the challenge of the examining process.

We have noticed no material change in recruiting. There has been a little grumbling when Number One or Two learned that Number Five or Six was appointed, but we had the same complaint when Number One learned that Two or Three was chosen. The plan does have the advantage that, with wider opportunity in selection, the Appointing Authority must accept more responsibility in his appointments, and we have tried to stress the increased importance of the probation period to the Appointing Authority as his only recourse in the event of a poor choice.

In summary, I believe that our experience of eight months is insufficient to justify a hard and fast conclusion. I believe we perceive a slightly better acceptance of our efforts and no difficulty in certification where the vacancies are few and not many operating agencies are involved. When numbers of vacancies and agencies are concerned, we are meeting with some success in the utilization of the group selection process which brings together the several appointing authorities and expedites selection and appointment through elimination of the delays which would accompany the application of normal procedures.

I believe our approach will improve selection

and placement in a limited degree. I believe we have taken a very small forward step toward solution of a very complex problem. I do not believe any formula based on number of names alone will solve the problem. It is my belief that certification, being a part of an involved process of recruiting, examining, certifying and placing qualified workers in public positions, should be geared to the availability of qualified candidates; the class level of the job; the number of vacancies; the right to waive residence restrictions; attained scores in the examination; and such other factors as may tend to expedite the whole process without injury to the principle of merit and fitness.

JOHN W. JACKSON, Director, State of Minnesota Civil Service Department.

For the first fifteen years of its operation, the Minnesota Civil Service law provided for certification of the three highest ranking names on an eligible list.

The 1955 Legislature modified this section of the law somewhat by providing that the Civil Service Department certify the first three names, plus any additional names of persons whose scores were within three points of the person on the eligible list with the highest examination rating.

This change came as the result of a recommendation made by an interim committee of the legislature, established in 1953 for the purpose of studying civil service in the Minnesota state government. Reasons for the change included: (1) a feeling on the part of some department heads that they should be permitted a wider selection of applicants, on the theory that examination scores of 88 and 86, for example, were not sufficiently discriminating to reflect a real difference in competence, and (2) a provision in the civil service law that all disabled veterans receiving scores of 60 or better must be placed at the head of the list, which meant that many high scoring candidates could not be considered for employment or promotion until the disabled veterans had been appointed or declined appointment. (As originally contemplated, the bill provided for the abolition of the so-called absolute preference for disabled veterans. This section was stricken from the bill, however, leaving the department with the problem of determining how to reconcile the two provisions.)

The administration of the law, as revised, raised some procedural questions which took the staff several weeks to iron out. As will be apparent to anyone familiar with the process

of certification, these problems arose largely from the fact that disabled veterans with scores (including veterans' preference) ranging anywhere from 70 to 100 appeared ahead of nondisabled veterans and nonveterans. This raised the question of whether the lowest ranking disabled veteran who had a score of 60 + 10 or 70, and who, under the law must be placed ahead of all nondisabled veterans and nonveterans, should be considered as having a higher examination rating than a nondisabled veteran with a score of 90 + 5 or 95. Without going into detail, it can be said that the highest examination score was determined as the candidate's actual score plus his 5 or 10 points preference, without reference to rank on the list.

During the first eight months of operation under the new provision, the Civil Service department made a total of 2455 certifications. Of the total, 2112, or 86 percent involved the referral of three or fewer names. (Fewer than three names were referred in those cases where, because of recruiting difficulties for a particular area, only one or two persons were available.)

The following list shows the number of names certified:

No. of Names	No. of Certifications
fewer than 3.....	876
3.....	1236
4.....	146
5.....	73
6.....	49
7.....	12
8.....	20
9.....	4
more than 10.....	39
Total .....	2455

The question of whether certification of names from an eligible list should be restricted to one, three, or five, or to categories of proficiency has been argued for many years. It is my feeling that restriction to one name is an administrative impossibility for any agency servicing a geographical area as large as a state. I am also of the opinion that the advisability of certifying more than three names depends upon a number of factors, including the political sophistication of department heads, adequacy of the pay plan, amount of employee turnover, availability of candidates, and the rapidity with which the examining staff is able to function.

I believe that there is no violation of the merit principle where relaxation of certification is protected by a limitation based on examination scores, as is the case in Minnesota. Our experience indicates that large numbers



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of names are referred primarily in low salaried classes where the major problem has been to place a person on the job before he finds employment elsewhere, rather than to worry about the possibility of a purely political appointment. It is also interesting to note that in many cases in which more than three names were certified the appointing authorities have continued to select one of the top three. Whether this tendency is due to habit, or constitutes an endorsement of our examinations, remains to be seen.

In summary, it has been our experience that the change in the Minnesota law has resulted in faster placements without making any discernible inroads on the merit principle.

**WILLIAM R. WELSH, JR.,** Commissioner, Colorado State Civil Service Commission.

We of the Colorado Civil Service Commission do not feel that our "rule of one" for public personnel selection is the answer to our problems. However, Article XII of the Constitution of the State of Colorado states in part: "The person ascertained to be the most fit and of the highest excellence to be first appointed." Therefore, the individual at the top of the eligible list must be the first appointed.

We recognize that this does not give the department head any voice in the selection of an employee and to my way of thinking this is not good. To arbitrarily tell the head of a department that he must take a particular individual or do without, certainly does not build good public relations for civil service.

On the other hand, the "rule of three" is, in my opinion, as unfair to the individual on the top of the eligible list as the "rule of one" is to the department head. Back and forth throughout the entire United States as well as in Colorado, we hear charges of discrimination. Certainly there is every opportunity for discrimination under the "rule of three."

We know from experience that many times a member of the so-called minority groups has placed first on an eligible list, and even under the "rule of one" he or she is hard to place in a position. Department heads or personnel officers, in some instances, have used every subterfuge in the book in attempts to circumvent the certification of one of these individuals, even going so far as to leave a position vacant until there is a change in the eligible list. What happens to such an individual under the "rule of three?" I am certain that many agencies must admit that the individual in question might never receive certification.

In my humble opinion, the answer to the problem is the "rule of one" with a six months' probationary period. This gives the department head an opportunity to have some voice in the selection, and gives the individual an opportunity to show that he is capable of doing a job in a manner that is both a credit to him and to the public service.

My opinion further is that the personnel agency should police the probationary period to see that the individual is given every opportunity to demonstrate his ability. I believe a report should be made to the personnel agency by the immediate supervisor of the individual at the end of two, four, and six months, outlining the progress the individual is making and whether or not his performance on the job is satisfactory. I further believe that this probationary period should only be for entrance into the public service and not for promotional examinations, especially if the promotion is to be made within the department.

As stated above, I do not feel the "rule of one" is completely fair to the operating head of a department and I do not feel the "rule of three" is fair to many groups of employees. This means, then, that we must strike a happy medium to be fair to each group. Considerable discussion with operating heads and employees' groups has led me to the conclusion that the "rule of one" with the probationary period is the answer.

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bookshelf

The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on certification was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian.

#### Certification of Eligible Lists in the Public Service

Avery, Robert S.

Experiment in management; personnel decentralization in the Tennessee Valley Authority. Knoxville, University of Tennessee press, 1954, pp. 19-22.

Sums up T.V.A.'s method of certification showing use of selective certification and the success of their selective policy.

Cahn, Frances T.

Federal employees in war and peace; selection, placement, and removal. Washington, Brookings institution, 1949, pp. 112-124.

Summarizes certification procedures prior to and during World War II, points out controls imposed by Veterans' Preference Act of 1944 and concludes that certification was strengthened rather than weakened by the war.

Charlesworth, James C.

Governmental administration. New York, Harper & brothers, 1951, pp. 498-501.

Explains certification, indicates variations used and compares it with procedures used in private industry.

Clapp, Gordon R.

"The rule of three, it puzzles me." Public administration review, vol. 1, no. 3, Spring 1941, pp. 287-293.

Reviews Report of President's Committee on Civil Service Improvement with special emphasis on the rule of three and its weaknesses, and presents a suggested plan for an unranked register of eligibles which would give flexibility to certification process.

Gladieux, Bernard L.

Civil service versus merit. Public administration review, vol. 12, no. 3, Summer 1952, pp. 173-177.

Recommends abolition of "rule of three" and the establishment of a more flexible system of certification.

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Lehman, William P.

Selective certification of trainees. *Personnel administration*, vol. 1, no. 3, November 1938, pp. 4-6.

States that selective certification gives flexibility to merit system and attempts to obtain best qualified personnel. Lists selection principles and tests for validity of requests for certification.

McQuoid, George and Arnold D. Palley.

Helping the merit system work. *Personnel administration*, vol. 16, no. 3, May 1953, pp. 15-18.

Explains need for selective certification, how it operates and how it is controlled to enable the merit system to function smoothly in a vast maze of specialized jobs.

Mayers, Lewis.

The federal service; a study of the system of personnel administration of the United States government. New York, D. Appleton & company, 1922, pp. 413-440.

Reviews certification for apportioned positions, restriction of certification of members of same family, and rule of three. Book is not up to date but gives good historical information.

Mosher, William E., J. Donald Kingsley and O. Glenn Stahl.

Public personnel administration. 3rd ed. New York, Harper & brothers, 1950, pp. 148-154.

Outlines certification process, rule of three and T.V.A.'s selection procedure. Indicates selective certification is answer to job specialization.

President's committee on civil service improvement.

Report. Washington, U.S. Government printing office, 1941, pp. 89-90. (H. Doc. 118, 77th Cong.)

Makes recommendations concerning the use of selective certification in filling professional and scientific positions.

Reeves, Floyd W.

Civil service as usual. *Public administration review*, vol. 4, no. 4, Autumn 1944, pp. 327-340.

Includes appraisal of certification procedures, modifications developed during World War II and changes needed to modernize system.

Torpey, William G.

Public personnel management. New York, D. Van Nostrand company, inc., 1953, pp. 116-119.

Reviews selection from the certificate, basic rules of selection, interviews with eligibles, factors in selection and return of certificate to central personnel agency.

U.S. Commission on organization of the executive branch of the government.

Personnel and civil service; a report to Congress. Washington, U.S. Government printing office, 1955, pp. 61-62.

Recommends more freedom to appointing officers through a rule of five replacing the old rule of three except in lower grade positions and postal field services.

U.S. Commission on organization of the executive branch of the government.

Programs for strengthening federal personnel management; a report with recommendations, prepared by the Personnel policy committee. Washington, U.S. Government printing office, 1949, pp. 24-25. (Appendix A.)

Surveys the traditional selection system pointing out defects and suggesting personnel office review specific job requirements and select best qualified eligibles from each quality group. Cites success of T.V.A.'s personnel procurement system using these basic essentials.

U.S. Congress. Senate. Committee on post office and civil service.

Personnel recruitment and employment practices in the federal government. Washington, U.S. Government printing office, 1953, pp. 43-46. (S. Doc. 37, 83rd Cong.)

Summarizes dissatisfaction of appointing officers and makes recommendations on the rule of three, policies dealing with the selection of veterans, and selective certification.

U.S. Congress. Senate. Committee on post office and civil service.

Providing a recruitment procedure for the competitive civil service in order to insure selection of personnel on the basis of open competition and merit. Washington, U.S. Government printing office, 1951, 16 pp. (S. rept. 956, 82d Cong.)

Discusses the use of category rating and selection. "Under this system applicants would be rated in four categories. . . . The appointing officer would have a choice of any candidate in the highest category. . . ." Also suggests use of the "rule of five" instead of the "rule of three."

White, Leonard D.

Introduction to the study of public administration. 4th ed. New York, Macmillan company, 1955, pp. 349-350.

Analyzes certification as logical end to process of recruitment and indicates effectiveness of process depends on those who prepare certificates.



**Job Evaluation.** E. Lanham. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1955. 404 pp. \$6.00.

Dr. Elizabeth Lanham, Associate Professor of Management at the University of Texas, has drawn extensively upon the surveys and experience of the University's Bureau of Business Research, to write an account of the principles, practices, and procedures of job evaluation "designed for college and university students as well as operating personnel."

A new text in a field of many, and particularly one that is addressed to two rather different audiences, invites both evaluation of the extent to which the needs of these audiences are met, and comparison with other recent texts. In 1954, at least two outstanding treatments, Otis and Leukart's revised *Job Evaluation* and Lytles' *Job Evaluation Methods* were published.

Although well-organized and lucidly written, Dr. Lanham's volume does not quite measure up. Viewed as a text for students, there is a

lack of treatment of a variety of fairly critical issues in the nature and limitations of job evaluation, and omission of at least a few topics that should be in a well-rounded presentation. Viewed as a handbook for operating personnel, there is more than an occasional instance of referral of the reader to some other source to learn about specific operations involved. The omissions in the text are all the more striking in that the relevant literature is, in almost every case, listed in the excellent nine-page bibliography.

The material is divided into nineteen chapters. The first constitutes an introduction to the topic and provides a summary picture of the frequency distribution of job evaluation installations by industry. The second deals with the organization for job evaluation, and the third with the role of organized labor, and the attitudes of unions. After a discussion of the factors involved in the selection of a rating plan, the four common types of plan in use

(ranking, classification, point-rating, and factor comparison) are treated in three chapters.

The treatment, as far as it goes, is sound, but in the opinion of this reviewer, it is neither critical nor complete enough. Students of the public service will miss any reference to the federal position classification system—probably the most elaborately thought-out approach to qualitative, whole-job evaluation. More seriously, the text includes no mention of the extensive postwar research into job evaluation viewed as a psychometric technique. Reference is made to Viteles' 1941 paper, "A Psychologist Looks at Job Evaluation," in which he questioned the usefulness of a large number of scales in a job evaluation system, but the essential point is missed. As Viteles implied, and as later research has clearly shown, in almost all systems in use today the final ordering of jobs is determined by only two or three (at the most, four) independent factors. The actual scales on which ratings are made overlap appreciably; raters are *not able* to discriminate between, say, "skill" and "complexity." These results are attested to by about forty published factor analyses of job evaluation systems. Furthermore, there is the distinct possibility that increasing the number of scales may increase the *error variance* rather than the true variance. While there may be reasonable *political* arguments for a large number of scales, there are few sound statistical arguments in favor. A further consequence of the intercorrelation of scales has to do with weights assigned to them. Two points are pertinent: first, the *effective* weight of a scale in a composite is generally not the same as its assigned weight; and second, as the number of scales is increased, all the effective weights degenerate to unity. The student should have some knowledge of these phenomena; they might even be of interest to operating personnel.

Two other omissions struck this reviewer. First, although it is mentioned that Bengé developed the factor-comparison system because of dissatisfaction with the point-rating approach, the reasons for this dissatisfaction, which constituted a thoughtful critique of the earlier system, are not mentioned. Second, there is no reference to Ralph Ells' "Basic Abilities System," which is different from the others described, and especially useful for routine jobs.

The following two chapters deal with job analysis and job description, based on the interview and questionnaire approaches. The treatment is good, but again omits several contemporary developments, including the critical

incidents approach to job analysis, and checklist methods.

After job analysis and description, four chapters are devoted to job rating, rating verification, setting up job classes, and classifying employees.

While the detail procedures for handling forms, down to fairly small items ("raters should examine the rating sheet and certify their approval by signing the sheet") are clearly set forth, the handling of such problems as halo effect, constant or systematic error, or central tendency error is not explicated. Some confusion also seems to exist in regard to validity and reliability. The author says (p. 229), "Unfortunately, . . . no particularly reliable statistical method exists for determining the reliability and validity of job ratings." In point of fact, there are several straight-forward solutions to the problem of rater reliability, based on rater-to-rater comparisons or upon intra-rater comparisons. Validation, carrying with it the requirement of an adequate independent criterion, presents problems only to the extent that such a criterion may not be available, and not, as the author seems to imply, because the ratings are the product of "human judgment."

The balance of the volume is devoted to job pricing (the wage survey and the rate structure), administration and control of the program, a brief treatment of the application of job evaluation to managerial positions, and some general concluding remarks. In matters of pricing and managerial job evaluation, particularly, the operating man is likely to need to refer to other sources in addition to this volume.

In summary, students and operating personnel will find in this volume a lucid picture of the bulk of current practice, and illustrations of most of the key steps involved. They will not, however, be made particularly aware of post-war innovations, or of the underlying characteristics of job evaluation viewed as a measurement technique.—PHILIP ASH, *Assistant Manager, Industrial Relations, Inland Steel Company.*

#### Personnel Management: A Human Relations Approach.

William H. Knowles. American Book Company, New York, 1955. 488 pp. \$4.50.

This is a textbook to be used in personnel management courses. It is organized into six parts, numbering in all twenty-two chapters, a conclusion, and an index.

The reader will find all basic viewpoints, techniques, and historical development surveyed. The author gives, in brief, the arguments for and against each idea and method



presented. As this is a textbook to be used in an orientation course there does not exist too much detail concerning each of the ones presented, but for instructional purposes there is sufficient. The instructor is free to enlarge, or the reader, by use of the suggested readings found at the end of each chapter, may do so on his own.

The author stresses "historical development, theory, and policy in personnel management." All skills, techniques, and procedures are related to this purpose. The originality of the text is to be found in this approach.

Professor Knowles contrasts the authoritarian ethical approach with what he terms the "humanistic," democratic faith based upon the ability and dignity of man. He states that all of the standard techniques can be successful in the framework of the democratic tradition of Western man, and that unionism can develop by collective bargaining for policy making, grievance procedure, and arbitration into a democratic industrial government. This can be achieved without the capitulation of either management or the unions.

This is, in the opinion of the reviewer, a good textbook. It is well organized and covers the subject. It also makes the student aware of the importance of ideology in the solution of everyday problems. The author points out the contribution of Judaeo-Christian ethics to the solution of human relations problems and in this context he orients his answers. The reviewer also suggests that Western thought is indebted to our classical heritage as well, and believes both author and reader will profit by acquaintance with this heritage. In this respect a close reading of "The Classical Heritage and Its Beneficiaries," R. R. Bolgar, Cambridge University Press, 1954, will be a good starting point. Western man's feeding on the classics as well as Judaeo-Christian thought is important, and classical learning's impact on Christian civilization is significant.

For those engaged in personnel management this book hints that a background that is broad and deep in the development of Western thought is essential. Textbooks like this are insufficient; we need to go back and drink deeply. Professor Knowles' work, it is hoped, will encourage many to do so. Upon such a background these human relations methods will have a better chance to succeed.

In Part One of the book the author gives the historical background of management-labor relations, tracing it from slavery to its modern concepts.

Part Two discusses various approaches to personnel management and treats in separate

chapters the contributions of industrial engineering, industrial psychology, industrial sociology, and the human relations approach to personnel management.

Part Three treats of the theory and philosophy of personnel management, describing and evaluating it in its bureaucratic function—its policy, philosophy, and scope. This section of the text also dwells on methods of securing cooperation and the meaning and measurement of morale.

Part Four deals with union-management relations. This section will be of utmost importance to the reader. Here, the author treats the theory of industrial democracy, the philosophy of job-conscious unionism, the growth of industrial government, the development of mature industrial relations and union-management cooperation. The author's statement that industrial democracy includes the elements of consent of free groups, status for wage earners, and the politics of compromise in the solution of industrial conflict leads to the concrete suggestion of the need for mature attitudes on the part of management and job-conscious unions, with these attitudes creating the climate for collective bargaining, grievance procedures, and arbitration.

Part Five is concerned with wage administration. Here, the author discusses job-evaluation and merit rating, work loads and incentives, the collective wage bargain, profit sharing, stock participation, and guaranteed wages. The techniques and methods of these devices are discussed and evaluated against the background of democratic philosophy which is the underlying theme of this text.

Part Six, the concluding part, relates to regulation of employee-employer relations, social security as a personnel function, and regulation of union-management relations.

This text, of course, is concerned primarily with private enterprise and therefore covers territory ordinarily not found in texts relating to public personnel administration. As has been stated often before, however, the areas of relationship between private and public enterprise are not sharply divided. The principles contained in this book are of utmost value to public personnel managers.

The democratic thesis in this work should be accepted as commonplace to persons in government in a democratic state. It is also clear that many managers in public enterprise still retain authoritarian concepts of management. It is to be hoped that this work will come to their attention and be absorbed by them. If there be any personnel managers amongst these authoritarians it is also hoped they come

upon this text before it is too late. It is clear that "prerogative" is not synonymous with leadership in a democratic society.—WILLIAM W. SHAW, *Director of Personnel, City of New Orleans, and Associate Professor of Political Science, Tulane University.*

*Psychology in Management.* Mason Haire. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956. 212 pp. \$5.00.

The promise of this book is: "... to present a coherent, integrated statement of a set of psychological principles and their implications for some problems of industrial management." While many readers may question whether the author has fulfilled this promise, few will doubt that he has presented a strong argument for an increased emphasis upon the "person" in personnel management.

Consideration of the first part of the promise, in the main, is found in chapter two (33 pages); the second part of the promise is presented in the remaining chapters (154 pages). This does not mean that "principles" are neglected in the latter chapters, but it is largely true that little or nothing is added to the set of psychological principles once the reader leaves "The Nature of People" (chapter two) and embarks upon the remaining chapters: "Leadership and Supervision," "Communication," "Training," "Productivity and Wage-Payment Plans," and "More Complex Problems."

The literature in the field of psychology abounds in attempts to present an integrated system of concepts that would satisfactorily explain human nature. Each year the crop of new textbooks in introductory psychology, and more advanced texts as well, attest to these efforts at dealing with the complexities of human nature. It seems a little ambitious, then, to attempt to construct a system of psychology within the scope of a single chapter, even though the structure is designed to support only a segment of behavior (i.e., industrial management). And it is in this area, in this reviewer's opinion, that the author has failed to fulfill the promise of the book.

The set of principles which the author does offer as a framework for his subsequent analyses of management's problems closely resembles Dr. Percival M. Symonds' more complete structure in *The Dynamics of Human Adjustment*. A reader would be better prepared to assimilate the discussion of "Communication," "Supervision," etc., if he would digest a more complete treatment of human "dynamics" than Dr. Haire's "short course" in chapter two. There

is more to learning than the "law of effect"; more to motivation than "physical, social, and egoistic needs"; and more to perception than "ambiguous stimuli" from the environment. Most psychologists probably would place more emphasis upon man's past experiences and upon his emotional life than is given in this text. The effect of individual differences is not given clear-cut emphasis, although this factor is not entirely neglected.

Psychology strives to follow a scientific method of investigation. An author who uses "psychological principles," then, has a certain responsibility for referring to the investigations which support his principles. Unless the reader is prepared to take the author's word as suitable evidence, there is no basis for accepting such concepts as "law of effect" or "egoistic needs." Actually, most of Dr. Haire's principles can be supported by sound evidence, and it is unfortunate that the scientific flavor of the text must suffer because of a neglect to provide even a bibliography or list of readings.

The author does look at the problems of management from a psychologically oriented point of view. On the subject of supervision he says: "If we see the superior's job as one of accomplishing production through people, then it is the people, not the production, that must be his first consideration. When discussing the topic of training, the author states: "The force of the decision to train, the method, and the authority behind the training must come from the line." And on the subject of productivity and wage-payment plans: "... the de-skilling that has accompanied technological change has taken many of the values that lent work its meaning. Management must look for ways to identify them and replace them."

The author makes a plea for the addition of a psychological definition of jobs to the customary logical and technological definitions. He warns against the tendency to overestimate the unity of the personality. And he presents some forceful arguments for an emphasis upon the techniques of communication. All these discussions stress the need for all levels of management to consider the role of human factors among management's problems, e.g., "If we can understand the nature of these people better and know how to use this understanding in management practices and policies, we can work toward the control of one of the factors in the complex set of problems presented by a modern business organization.

While the author may have fallen short of his goal of providing us with an integrated statement of a set of psychological principles which we could then apply to management's

problems, certainly he has succeeded in presenting an interesting and forceful set of arguments for stressing a psychological orientation to these problems.—DONALD R. MORRISON, *Test Service Director, Civil Service Assembly.*

**Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership.**

Ralph M. Stogdill and Carroll L. Shartle. Research Monograph Number 80, Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1955. 77 pp. \$2.00.

This is a collection of seven manuals describing methods for the study of leadership. They were prepared for the Ohio State Leadership Studies, a research program designed to develop research methods and information to help in the search for a better understanding of leadership. This research program is distinguished by the conception of leadership not only as a characteristic of the individual, but as a relationship between persons in a functioning organization.

The first monograph in the series presents data on the study of leadership exhibited by persons in administrative and executive positions measured in terms of level in the vertical hierarchy of organization, personal interaction, responsibility and authority, work performance, leader behavior, and rated effectiveness. Each manual includes a summary of the experience in developing the method, the actual forms or procedure used, and directions for administering and scoring.

**Patterns of Administrative Performance.** Ralph M.

Stogdill, Carroll L. Shartle, and Associates. Research Monograph Number 81, Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1956. 108 pp. \$2.00.

The four studies in this monograph were designed to test the hypothesis that work performance and leader behavior of persons who hold positions of leadership will be significantly related to the nature of the positions which they occupy. The first study presents profiles of work performance and leader behavior "scores" earned by persons in different types of positions; the second analyzes these same scores made by Navy officers in submarines and on landing ships. The third study examines differences in average work performance and leader behavior scores of officers in four Navy groups and those of executives in four business

organizations. The fourth describes a factor analysis of intercorrelations made among 120 groups of officers and lists the eight factors found to account for most of the variance among the groups.

Findings of all four studies generally support the initial hypothesis.

**Scientific Personnel Resources: A Summary of Data on Supply, Utilization and Training of Scientists and Engineers.** National Science Foundation. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1955. 50¢.

This report represents a summary of the data brought together by the National Science Foundation in fulfilling its function as a central clearinghouse for information about scientific and technical personnel. The statistical information is focused primarily on the natural sciences and the study is confined to consideration of the numbers of scientists and engineers, professional characteristics, employment, and replenishment through the educational system. A limited amount of information has been included for the medical and health fields and the social sciences because of their close relationships to the natural sciences.

**The Torment of Secrecy.** Edward A. Shils. The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois, 1956. 238 pp. \$3.50.

Professor Shils of the Committee on Social Thought at the University of Chicago has written a philosophical and sociological study of the background and consequences of security policies in America. He looks for the origins of the policies in the stresses of the changing world following the war—"dreams of peace and harmony: disillusionment; the atomic bomb and the secret; the danger of subversion by infiltration"—and examines the deeper sources such as the elements of hyperpatriotism, xenophobia, isolationism and fundamentalism in our society. Still other conditions fostering this preoccupation with secrecy are those surrounding politics, for instance, the ideologic strains produced by politician versus bureaucrat, by the alienated intelligentsia, and the embitterment of the opposition.

The author suggests that the real enemy is extremism and considers what forces might establish a more balanced and reasonable atmosphere out of which a realistic security policy might come. He presents recommendations for a national security-loyalty program which he believes are more effective and more just while preserving democratic principles.

### 1956 CSA Abstracters

The following members of the Civil Service Assembly have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1956.

Fred R. Alleman, New Jersey State Department of Civil Service, Trenton, New Jersey (Retired)

Harold N. Baxter, Personnel Technician, City Service Commission, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Charles A. Brown, Administrative Assistant to the Director of Public Works, City of Berkeley, California

Miss Celia L. Carpenter, Regional Merit System Representative, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Boston, Massachusetts

Robert B. Code, Chief of Personnel, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Canada

Carl Gardecki, Personnel Technician I, Wayne County Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan

David D. Greenhalgh, Personnel Technician, Civil Service Commission, Los Angeles, California

William Krieg, Personnel Examiner, Municipal Civil Service Board, Portland, Oregon

Gardiner B. Parker, Personnel Technician II, Personnel Department, State of Alabama, Montgomery, Alabama

Lawrence E. Rogers, Personnel Technician, Department of Personnel, St. Louis, Missouri

William G. Waggoner, Employee Relations Officer, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, Region 2, Sacramento, California

Miss Janet L. Ward, Personnel Technician II, Seattle Office, Washington State Personnel Board

Mrs. Eve K. Williams, Payroll and Personnel, Miami, Florida, Department of Libraries

### Administration

**Wiley, Robert H.**, "Quality Control of Personnel Management." *Personnel Administration*, November, 1955.—The army has an integrated system of evaluation which provides a "quality control" for many aspects of personnel management. The army civilian payroll in the United States is approximately \$146,000,000 per month; 250 installations have personnel officers. Authority for personnel management is delegated by the Secretary to installation commanders and the Secretary measures effective discharge of this authority by four means: (1) Quarterly reports include recruiting, quits, pay rates, promotions, training, absenteeism, and disciplinary actions. These are analyzed comparatively and the results are reported to top management and subsequently back to the installation commanders. (2) Biennially, army management analysts review operating personnel records and interview supervisors and employees in every installation. These surveys identify problems and point up noteworthy techniques which may improve administration and form the basis for changes in the army wide personnel program. The findings include consideration of whether authority is being properly exercised and how effectively the civilian work force is managed. Where possible this is translated into dollar costs or savings. (3) Local self-analysis plans are now developing. These direct attention to priority problems and operating managers work with the personnel staff in analyzing data and developing new approaches. (4) The army has established an advisory committee of industrial relations authorities who visit installations, confer among themselves, and make recommendations to top

management. This look by outsiders brings objectivity into the whole evaluation system. It is believed that this integrated evaluation system works towards a flexible efficient work force supporting the American soldier.—*Celia L. Carpenter.*

**Stryker, Perrin,** "Who Is an Executive?" *Fortune*, December, 1955—U.S. executives have not yet come to agree on exactly what an executive is. *Fortune* recently asked several men in the upper ranks of business to define what they mean by an executive. No two definitions were the same; yet out of ninety-nine offered there emerged this composite self-portrait: An executive is a person paid for a full-time job in which he: (1) directly helps to set his company's objectives and over-all policies; (2) is required to make or approve decisions that significantly affect profits and future plans; (3) coordinates several major corporate functions, or those of a major division or department; (4) maintains and develops an organization of trained subordinates to achieve the company's objectives; (5) delegates responsibility and authority to the organization; and (6) controls performance and results through at least one level of supervision. Although a sizable minority believes that all in management, from president to foreman, are executives in some degree, the majority believes that in any company only a "few at the top" really function as executives. The majority believes also that an executive operates at a higher level than a manager, that carrying out the policies set by others is the function of managers, and that the two actions most distinctively characteristic of the executive are setting company-wide policy and making major decisions. Additional functions which stand out as typical of executive work include coordinating, organizing, and delegating. Opinion polls taken of managers, supervisors, and workers indicated they are in general agreement with top management's composite definition of an executive. However, because the answer to the question, who is an executive, depends on who is talking, no one can say definitely how many executives there are in the U.S. Estimates given by twenty-four presidents varied from .03 percent of the employees to 6.7 percent. Even if some day the exact number is known, many people will continue to talk in terms of the "Executive Class," which is doubtless several times bigger than its core of true executives. Yet a corporation that has not asked itself who its true executives are has, in effect, failed to ask itself: How does this company propose to reach its objective?—*David D. Greenhalgh.*

## Communication

**Heusser, Audrey E.,** "Open Letter to a Novice House Organ Editor." *Personnel Journal*, September, 1955.—What is the place of the house publication in the industrial communication program? It must be remembered that an employee publication is one of the costs of doing business and so must pay its expense to justify its existence. It is published not only to be read, but also believed. Success for a house organ, unlike commercial publications, is measured by its ability to influence employees' thinking. Concrete measurement is in terms of accident reports, employment turnover, absenteeism, productivity, employee relations, and other factors in which the house organ plays a small but significant role. The editor's primary concern is for readers. Techniques of commercial magazines must be studied, but caution must be exercised to avoid repelling the employee-reader with costly displays. In general, the baits for catching readers are those which interest, inform, entertain, or appeal to the reader's ego. The company editor has two advantageous lures at his disposal. First, you have information the employee can get nowhere else. Second, you can give the employee-reader a sense of personal gratification. This means the recognition of the worker as an individual rather than merely printing personals. But catching readers is not sufficient justification for a house organ. You will probably want to include such objectives as: to improve sales and community relations; to show that your company is a good place to work; or that it is a human kind of corporation; or that it is a good corporate citizen; or that the people who work for your company are good people to work with. To the extent that you can convince your readers that these things are true, you will have helped to establish a favorable climate in which the other agents of industrial, public, and community relations can do their work. House publications are now found in over 6,000 companies, costing several million dollars a year. The house organ with the clear-cut goal is the one that is growing.—*Janet L. Ward.*

## Rating

**Jurgensen, C. E.,** "Item Weights in Employee Rating Scales." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, October, 1955.—It has been the practice in industry to have employee rating scales in which adjectives connoting degrees of merit (e.g., excellent, good, fair, poor) are assigned weights such as 4-3-2-1, or 100-75-50-25. Statisticians do not believe that it is good practice to weight



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items in a rating scale equally even though identical weights are assigned each item; statisticians believe that parts combined into a composite should be weighted in proportion to their standard deviations. In a study of ratings given 810 employees of one concern, an employee rating scale consisting of four over-all ratings was used—four-point; five-point; six-point; and seven-point. Three additional forms were developed according to the same principles. One form was to be used for a preliminary report on employees after 30 days of employment; one for a probationary report after 90 days of employment; and a third was for permanent employees.

The statistical versus arbitrary weights were correlated for each of the three rating forms: preliminary, probationary, and permanent employees. The correlations were: .995, .996, and .994 for n's of 245, 245, and 210, respectively. These correlations show a high degree of equivalence between statistically determined and arbitrarily assigned weights. The correlations are so high that the two methods can be considered to render the same results. The fact that the statistically determined weights did not prove superior in this study does not indicate that statistical methodology should be discarded or minimized in other situations.—*Lawrence E. Rogers.*

**Axtel, Robert G.,** "How One Company Made Merit Rating Work." *Personnel Journal*, November, 1955.—A merit rating plan to tie in with job evaluation looked like the answer when it was installed. But, considerations other than performance began to enter the picture. Foremen decided that refusing to grant regular increases was troublesome and rated employees at levels high enough to assure increases. Instead of the plan resulting in increased production it was causing this company to become a high cost producer. Although foremen and superintendents retained authority to grant increases they had transferred the responsibility to the mathematics of the system. In reappraising their plan the company decided that (1) the rating plan should help supervisors reach a decision on a merit increase—not produce the whole answer; (2) rating guides should reflect the supervisor's own judgment on the level of performance that justifies a wage increase, and (3) training was needed to help supervisors adopt common performance standards.

With the aims of management spelled out as to what it wanted to receive in return for the merit increases it proposed to give, middle management was invited to take over. In con-

ference, foremen and supervisors worked out specific factors and weights of each factor that should be applied to each job. Forms were constructed so that a glance would show the approximate level of individual performance in relation to standards. This active participation by foremen and superintendents in the structure of the rating system provided valuable training and resulted in the acceptance of a responsibility to administer wages objectively at the only level of management really in a position to do so.—*William G. Waggoner.*

## Selection

**Robinson, Kenneth,** "Selection and the Social Background of the Administrative Class." *Public Administration*, Winter, 1955.—"Higher Civil Servants in Britain from 1870 to the Present Day" by R. K. Kelsall examines the social background of the Administrative Class. The author has considered the social strata of Higher Civil Servants and also methods of selection and qualities desirable in this class. He has assembled data on Higher Civil Servants in 1929, 1939, and 1950, showing method of entry, schools and universities, father's occupation, rate of progress, association between career-success and other factors, and extent of "wastage." With the supersession of patronage, the Administrative Class came from upper-middle class or professional parents. Recently, a greater proportion of Administrative positions are filled by promotion, largely, on a departmental basis and advancement has varied for reasons other than ability. Mr. Kelsall does not advocate recruitment wholly by promotion but refers to a department where "no promoted men to provide a leaven." Overrepresentation of Oxford and Cambridge is greater than should be "expected." He feels that the discrepancy in pre-war years may have been because Oxford and Cambridge graduates displayed the characteristics of traditional Higher Civil Servants to a greater extent than others and that in post-war competitions the main cause is failure of candidates from other universities to apply. The pre-war interview gave a preference to candidates from public and boarding schools. He thinks that the longer interview now given, with supplementary procedures now available, should be more selective but that such tests may also give a preference to candidates from independent and boarding schools. Mr. Kelsall never directly considers qualities desirable in Higher Civil Servants but rather how to remedy their deficiencies—lack of mental and nervous energy, self-confidence and

poise, "high courage," and lack of specialization. As a remedy, it would be a mistake to exclude direct entrants from universities completely; rather a continued widening of the range from which Higher Civil Servants are drawn. Men who enter the Higher Civil Service from a much lower stratum may think failure to rise the result of defects of those who fail. The son of working-class parents entering the Administrative Class will not necessarily have greater regard to the interests of workers. Mr. Kelsall hesitates about increasing the number of scientists and technicians in the Administrative Class and points out the need for officials with general rather than a specialist training. Service conditions cannot be changed to produce major modifications in the attitude of mind of senior administrators. Organization improvements would "leave untouched the fundamental service causes of hesitancy, caution and lack of reformist zeal." Our government is a "Parliamentary bureaucracy" and it is this which determines the qualities of the bureaucrat.—*Robert B. Code.*

### Testing

**Minor, John B., and Culver, John E.,** "Some Aspects of the Executive Personality." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, October, 1955.—Attempts have been made to discover if responses to personality tests indicate characteristics which make for success in the business world. Authors are not consistent in defining what occupational groups should be included under the term "executive." The executive sample selected for the study was restricted to top level officers of large corporations who, by virtue of their position, are successful. Two sample groups were used: one consisted of college professors and the other was an occupationally heterogeneous group of executives. The Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement Test was used in this study. The initial analysis consisted of a study based on protocols selected at random from the two larger samples. These were then studied in detail in order to isolate factors which seemed to differentiate the two groups. Seven variables were selected for further investigation. These variables were empirical derivations. By testing the significance of the differences only two reliable values were found. The first is a generalized fear of illness and the second is a tendency to react to problem situations with a feeling of some degree of helplessness, and a sense of being dependent on others for a solution. No determination was

made relative to what these characteristics mean in terms of a total personality. Two other questions remain: Are these characteristics produced by the job or are these long-term factors in the individual's adjustment? Fear of illness and fear of failure are essentially the same thing. These findings may be considered as a view of the executive personality and motivation. (Article contains statistics and discusses testing technique.)—*Carl Gardecki.*

### Training

**Urie, John M., and Reese, Howard L.,** "Phoenix Administrative Intern Plan Proves Aid to City Departments." *Western City*, July, 1955.—The administrative intern program was inaugurated in July, 1950, by City Manager Roy W. Wilson. The program has several objectives. The first is to help management review the organization of departments and divisions of the city government, evaluate the effectiveness with which their activities are being conducted, and make proposals for remedying unsatisfactory situations. The second objective is to keep a flow of new ideas and fresh viewpoints coming into the administrative organization. The third objective is to encourage men of college background to further their careers in municipal administration.

Three interns are appointed each year from applicants who have, or are seeking, Master's degrees in municipal administration. Selections are made on the basis of an exhibited interest in the field of city management, academic training, scholastic standing, campus activities, and other personal characteristics. The work assigned to the interns involves both routine duties and special research projects. Routine duties include responsibility for reviewing and revising forms used by the various departments; checking requisitions for capital outlay with lists of items authorized in the budget; investigating and evaluating suggestions submitted by employees as a part of an employee suggestion system; acting as secretary of the city manager's monthly staff meetings; and attending bid openings as the manager's representative. Special research projects are assigned as the need arises, and usually involve studies in organization, administrative procedures, work simplification and plans for expanding or improving specific municipal services.

An evaluation of the accomplishments of the interns over the past five years leaves no question concerning the worth of the program to the city. Much of the work done by interns

has been sufficiently complex so as to require a person with broad orientation and keen analytical ability. Without the intern program this work would either have been done by city employees commanding higher salaries than the interns or it would not have been accomplished successfully. Administrative practices have advanced materially as a result of the program.—*William E. Krieg.*

**Bailey, S. A.,** "Training the Technician in Administrative Practices." *Personnel Administration*, Winter, 1955.—The committee recommends that men in high positions have a break from normal duties for purposes of study and foreign travel. At present the British Treasury has three conferences each year; one for executives, two for scientists and engineers. These conferences are residential and last 8 days. Membership is varied and attendance numbers about 20. The purpose is to discuss organization and management. The opening session is devoted to a brief description by each member of work he does. The last session is an evaluation of the conference by the members. One day is devoted to visiting some establishment where a better insight of the problems under discussion can be obtained. Other days are divided into four one and one-half hour sessions. Certain sessions are devoted to discussion of some specific aspect of management by groups under a chairman. Sometimes prepared briefs are discussed or there are discussions by the whole conference of the conclusions of separate groups. Three sample briefs covered: delegation of authority, maintaining staff vitality, and relationships between professional and nonprofessional civil servants. The remaining sessions are different. Here an authority is asked to prepare a program or a summary, which is circulated to the members beforehand, and to introduce the subject in a half-hour talk. The remaining hour is given over to questions and discussion. The program for each conference varies but the subjects fall into three classes. First, the general aspects of management in civil service; second, those having a direct bearing on the work of members of the conference; third, those of general interest leading to comparisons with other organizations with an international aspect.—*Harold N. Baxter.*

**Lewin, George,** "Changing People Through Case Study." *Personnel Administration*, November, 1955.—One of the most challenging problems facing management today is the development of its executives and supervisors. The most successful development comes through (1) *on-the-job* training such as coaching, delegation, participation and (2) *off-the-job* activities such as attending evening courses and the work of professional organizations. The development of the manager can be further promoted through classroom experiences known as the "case study method." This method has the greatest value in situations where an executive has had nearly all of his experience with one company. Although his experiences may not be covered he will profit most from cases from industry-at-large where by analyzing someone else's problem the executive is able to see his own in better perspective. This method also has value for executives whose company is in a transition period requiring organization for growth and change. Here, thinking has to be new thinking; plans must be daring and imaginative; and policies have to be broad and flexible. The first problem encountered by the expanding company is to find the men to fill the positions opening up. Once a man is hired he is given the opportunity to "stretch" his capacity through stimulation received in group discussion. The case study fosters analytical thinking into basic causes and allows one to isolate the source of problems to be anticipated in a transition. This provides the development of imagination through good thought habits. Even executives with experience will profit by studying the experiences of others. Technique is important in developing analytical insight. One approach is to allow the men to individually analyze the problem and isolate the basic problems underlying them. Later in the class they will bring out the important elements and arrive at a solution. The system also works with executives with professional or specialized backgrounds unfamiliar with management problems. By using the case theory he will be able to pattern his thinking along proper lines, analyze basic causes and come up with workable solutions. Thus, men can rise above their specialty and be wielded into a strong management team.—*Charles A. Brown.*

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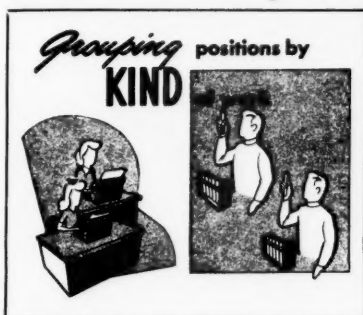
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